HISTORY OF ENGLAND,

FROM THE FIRST INVASION BY JULIUS CÆSAR, TO THE ACCESSION OF VICTORIA.

IN EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND THIRTY-SEVEN:

COMPRISING EVERY POLITICAL EVENT WORTHY OF REMEMBRANCE:

A PROGRESSIVE VIEW

Of Religion, Language, and Manners; of Men eminent for their Virtue or their Learning; their Patriotism, Eloquence, or Philosophical Research; of the Introduction of Manufactures, and of Colonial Establishments.

ACCOMPANIED BY

A BOOK OF QUESTIONS AND A KEY, FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS.

BY WILLIAM GRIMSHAW,
AUTHOR OF A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.



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PREFACE.

THE opinion of those gentlemen who examined the manuscript of my revised edition of Goldsmith's Roman History, having been confirmed by its very favourable reception when published, I have complied with their wishes in a further undertaking. They advised, that I should either correct and free from its impurities the History of England, by the same author, or compose one, in accordance with the present taste.

To the former task, I was most inclined; for two reasons—the popular attachment to a long established work, without reference to its author; and the universal celebrity of Goldsmith, from the greatness of his genius. To supersede a favourite book, is to deprive the public of a venerated acquaintance: to enter the lists against a favourite name, is to combat the powerful bias of education, and the natural infirmity of man.

Having therefore intended the revisal of Goldsmith's History of England for the use of schools, I commenced a critical examination of its contents. Had it been no further defective than his History of Rome, the attempt might have been accomplished, with satisfaction to myself, and advantage to the public. But objections accumulated in my progress. To the faults attending all the historical compositions of Goldsmith, owing to confusion, indelicacy, and grammatical inaccuracy, there was added another obstacle; most momentous indeed, and insurmountable—the absence of material events. His Roman History, I conceived, was sufficiently comprehensive. From what cause, then, proceeded *this* unexpected vacuity?—The account of his writings gave me satisfactory explanation. I there found, what I had indeed suspected, but what is little known—that his History of England *was not abridged by the Doctor himself;* but that public credulity has been made the instrument of an egregious fraud: a fraud, equally injurious to the memory of a much respected individual, and the important purposes of useful education.

The design of revising Goldsmith's history was, in consequence, abandoned, and this original work written in its place

Few writers have excelled Goldsmith, in readiness of wit, in elegance, in facility of composition. Few have experienced more trials of distress; the effects of unbounded generosity, or of unguarded simplicity. "Whilst he was composing the comedy of the 'Good Natured Man,' and preparing to take a more successful flight in his fine poem of the 'Deserted Village,' he wrote, for present support, at the instance of the booksellers, a series of histories, which he never considered as conducive to his fame. These were, his Roman History, in two volumes, an Abridgment of the same, and his History of England; which are often superficial and inaccurate."—So, says his biographer. Thus, whilst he poured forth, with unexampled rapidity, those imperfect productions of the *hand*, his *mind* laboured, with unwearied assiduity, in acquiring for the name of Goldsmith a posthumous renown; and the effort was accomplished. That name will long be cherished:—after the graven marble, the friendly tribute to departed genius, has, for ages, crumbled into dust, the monument which he himself had raised, will still remain, uninjured and admired.

In forming a work of this kind, there are chiefly three objects to be kept in view—a judicious selection of important events, a moderate interspersion of amusement, and occasional reflections, which may guard the reader against the imitation of vice, or inculcate the love of virtue. The narrative should not be exhausted on the infidelity of a queen, or the erection of a scaffold; upon the protracted siege, or the countermarching of an army: entertainment should be free from ribaldry, and praise should be withheld from the commission of enormity. When we have wearied the reader with the minute recital of a fictitious plot, we should look back, lest we have omitted the *Fire of London*:* we should consider, that a story may be humorous yet offensive, and avoid recommending *intrigues* and *virtues* as joint *recommendations* to a throne.†

A book designed for elementary instruction, should inculcate no doctrines foreign to the relations of the reader. Principles, favourable to the support of a constitutional monarchy, though they may be very excusable in England, should not be instilled into the youth of the United States Such expressions as "our most gracious majesty," and "we, his most loving subjects," are totally absurd, and

*Reign of Charles II. in Goldsmith's Abridged History

†Harold, in the same

border too much on the ridiculous, when uttered by the children of a republic.

As regards the selection of matter, I presume, that a larger portion of this, than of any similar work, is devoted to those incidents, and those characters, in the peaceful walks of society, which are the legitimate subjects of history, show the genius and manners of the age, the laws and administration of government, the achievements of science, the progress of arts and manufactures, the extension of commerce, the downfall of superstition, the triumphs of the spirit of religious liberty,—and form the brightest, noblest features, of a nation.

The history, from which some impudent scribbler has compiled the duodecimo volume of England, does not display a serious disproportion in its principal and subordinate parts; in its political events, and mere matter of amusement. But, unfortunately, the abridging has destroyed the equilibrium. Those hasty sallies of the Doctor, and those flashy antitheses, which were intended only as an agreeable *seasoning*, are given with so extravagant a hand, that the banquet is completely spoiled. The lights, which, before, were judiciously arranged, and enlivened the entertainment, are now collected in a body, and blaze is substituted for utility. Those distorted sentences, which may justly be styled literary economy, or metaphor burlesqued, and which, when diffused, were less easily perceived, might have been advantageously repressed; or, when introduced, should have been expanded, or explained.

Other defects of this inconsiderate reduction, are most glaringly perceptible. The transitions are not unfrequently made without the smallest regard to the relation which preceded: passages are referred to, which are no where to be found, except in the larger work; and, persons are abruptly and unexpectedly presented, in the usual manner of familiar acquaintance.

Every language has acquired a colloquial idiom. Perhaps not any is more corrupted by it than our own. No style gives a greater facility to a writer; none is better adapted to a familiar correspondence; but there is none which presents more difficulty to a foreigner, or should be more carefully avoided by the historian. The rapidity with which Goldsmith compiled, for pecuniary emolument, has, naturally, caused the admission of the most vulgar of those expressions. These are, in the highest degree, injurious to the reader; for, he will in general acquire the very

phrases, and the very manner, of his author. As I have early been aware of this fault, so I have, in the present, and in my former work, endeavoured to avoid it. To a young writer, the task is difficult; in its accomplishment even the most experienced is not always successful.

On the subject of indelicacy, some remarks can, advantageously, be made. What I shall advance may not be universally agreeable; for, though all should admit their justness, a few may feel offended, because convicted by their truth. As to the opinion of the latter, I am totally regardless: their censure or their praise is equally unavailing.

Whilst we acknowledge the difficulty under which the historian labours, of avoiding offensive language, we must also confess, that some writers employ more than is demanded by the subject: but, we must admit, that many terms, which are not only harmless, but elegant and essential, are rendered disagreeable, by habitual, and improper association—by the use, which, *behind-backs*, is immorally made of words, that, if restored to their proper destination, Delicacy herself need not be ashamed to utter. How surprising to a teacher, how distressing to a parent, when language is thus interpreted by the reader—perhaps a female, who stammers without a blush; and, whilst she seeks to impress the idea of modesty and refinement, only betrays the conversation of her retirement.

If these verbal contaminations be suffered to proceed, our whole stock, in the course of time, will be corrupted; and the *Latin*, or some other *foreign* language, must, again, be used, upon elevated subjects: or, there must be erected a national institution, to replace, with proportionate industry, those words which have been perverted from their original import.

No expressions have been admitted here, tending, in the smallest degree, to injure the taste of the reader by their vulgarity, or to wound the feelings of youth by their indelicacy: no sentiments to rouse the demon of religious intolerance, or to inflame the rancour of political animosity Without rising to the language of affectation, a writer may be elegant: without sinking to the monosyllables of the nursery, he may be perspicuous; he may inculcate piety without cant, and patriotism without extravagance

Philadelphia, Feb. 15, 1819.

THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

CHAPTER I.

THE ROMANS.

The invasions by Julius Cæsar; with a description of the Manners, and civil and religious State, of the ancient Inhabitants.

PROTECTED by her insular situation, Britain long remained unnoticed by the Romans, and undisturbed by the effects of their insatiable ambition. When, however, the successful enterprises of Julius Cæsar, had extended their dominion over all the provinces of Gaul, the ardent desire of further glory led that celebrated commander to her shores.

At this period, our history commences. All previous accounts are either the extravagant inventions of the Greek and Roman merchants, or the poetical fictions of the domestic bards.

Ante A. D. 55. Cæsar, with some veteran troops, sailed about midnight from the coast of Gaul, and, on the ensuing morning, landed near Deal. But his visit was very short. After several battles with the unoffending natives, which induced a few of their sovereigns to feign submission, the non-arrival of his cavalry, and approach of winter, constrained him to return.

The Britains had promised hostages for their future obedience. Relieved, however, from their alarm, they neglected the performance of their stipulations: for which breach of treaty, the haughty Roman determined to chastise them, in the following summer. Accordingly, he came over with a greater force; and, though he found a more regular resistance, the inhabitants having united under Cassivelaunus, one of their petty chieftains, he defeated them in every action. He then advanced into the country, passed the Thames, in the face of his enemy, and burned

the capital of the British commander. Fresh submissions being procured, he again withdrew into Gaul; leaving an authority which was more nominal than real.

From the writings of Julius Cæsar, and other Roman authors, we discern the manners, customs, and mode of warfare, of the Britains, at the time of the first invasion; and, from the same authorities, we are informed of their origin. These accounts represent them as a tribe of the Gauls or Celtæ, who had passed over from the neighbouring continent. The language of the one was the same as that spoken by the other. But the little refinement in arts, which the inhabitants of those provinces of Gaul, bordering on Italy, possessed, had, as yet, made small progress amongst the Britains. In the south-east parts, however, before the time of Cæsar, they had made some advances towards civilization; and, by the practice of agriculture, were there enabled to live in closely inhabited districts. The other natives of the island still maintained themselves by pasture. They were partially clothed in skins: the uncovered parts of their bodies were painted, so as to excite terror in their enemies; and, like all other people in primeval rudeness, they shifted their habitations as necessity demanded. Had we not the respectable testimony of Cæsar, we should be inclined to doubt the correctness of history, in regard to their means of military annoyance. That perspicuous author gives a particular account of chariots, used by the Britains, with surprising address, in battle. These, they impetuously drove against the enemy's ranks; and, sometimes alighting from their powerful machines, the warriors fought as infantry, on foot.

All the Britains were divided into small tribes, or nations; and, though their governments were monarchal, yet the people were free. They had early acquired a relish for liberty, the common birthright of mankind; and of which they can be deprived, only by their intestine feuds, or their culpable supineness. Their religion formed the mainspring of their government; and the Druids, who were their priests, maintained over them very powerful influence. Besides directing all religious duties, they superintended the education of youth: they possessed both the civil and the criminal jurisdiction; and inflicted upon all who refused to submit to their decrees, penalties so severe, that death itself became an acceptable relief. They practised their rites in dark and sequestered groves; and, to invest them in mysterious obscurity, forbade the committing of

their ceremonies to writing. No idolatrous worship ever attained so great influence over the human mind, as that which was inculcated by the Druids; so that, the Romans, though they had not before resorted to such a measure, finding it impossible to establish their institutions, where it held its authority, at last abolished the practice of the Druidical mysteries. We cannot, however, even in this case, approve of their interference; for, though we may with impunity persuade, we have no power given us to justify compulsion. Yet, it is scarcely fair, to judge the actions of a Heathen, by the enlightened doctrines of Christianity

CHAPTER II.

From the departure of Julius Cæsar, to the final withdrawing of the Romans.

THE civil wars which ensued amongst the Romans, saved the Britains from the yoke which was ready to be imposed upon them. Augustus, the successor of Julius Cæsar, was contented with the victory which he had gained over the liberties of his own country; and, fearing that the continued extension of dominion, which had subverted the republic, might have a similar effect upon the imperial government, recommended that the territory of Rome should never be enlarged.

A. D. 43. They had, therefore, for nearly a century, remained unmolested. But the Romans, under Claudius, began seriously to contemplate their subjection. Accordingly, they sent over an army with Plautius, an able general; who, in the south-east parts, made considerable progress in conquering this inoffensive people. Soon after, the emperor himself arrived; and, in those districts, received the submission of several petty states. The other Britains, headed by Caractacus, maintained an obstinate resistance; and, against them, the Romans gained little advantage, until Ostorius Scapula was sent over to command their armies. This general was more successful. He pierced into the country of the Silures; a warlike nation who inhabited the banks of the Severn; defeated Caractacus, took him prisoner, and sent him to Rome; where the magnanimous behaviour of this valiant chief, procured him better treatment than was generally experienced by captive princes

His countrymen, however, were not yet subdued; and the Romans regarded them as a people, from whom military glory might still be gained. In the reign of Nero, the command was given to Paulinus Suetonius; who prepared to distinguish himself, by victories over these rude and undisciplined forces. He should have known, that those laurels, which are gathered within the trenches of a barbarian, are unworthy of the hero. With the expiring shout of the giddy multitude, they drop from the victor's brow, withered and forgotten.

Finding that the island of Mona, now Anglesea, was the chief retreat of the Druids, he resolved to subject that place; the centre of their superstition, and the usual retreat of the baffled forces. On this sacred ground, the Britains endeavoured to prevent his landing, by every means which they could devise. The women and the priests intermingled with the soldiers; and, running about with flaming torches in their hands, tossing their dishevelled hair, and pouring forth their howlings and lamentations, caused more terror than the real dangers from the army. But Suetonius, by his address, impelled the Romans to the attack. He drove the Britains off the field; burned the Druids in the fires which they had prepared for their captive enemies; and, having thus triumphed over their religion, thought that his future progress would be easy.

But, in this, he was disappointed. The Britains, headed by Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, a princess who had been ignominiously treated by the Roman tribunes, attacked, with success, many settlements of the insulting conquerors. Suetonius hastened to the protection of London; then, a flourishing Roman colony; but which, in order to consult the general safety, he was obliged to abandon. It was reduced to ashes; and all who were found there, were, through retaliation, massacred, by the Britains. But this cruelty was revenged by the Roman general, in a great and decisive battle; and Boadicea, rather than fall into the hands of the enraged victor, ended her life by poison.

Suetonius, not long after, was recalled from the government of a people, whose natural temper, irritated by their sufferings, he appeared so little calculated to soften or appease.

The general that eventually established the Roman power in Britain, was Agricola; who governed it in the reigns of Vespasian, Titus, and Domitian. He conquered all the southern parts; carried his victorious arms into the forests

and mountains of Caledonia, which is now called Scotland; driving before him all the fierce and intractable portion of the inhabitants, who preferred any deprivation to a state of servitude. He then ordered his fleet to sail along the coast
90. (by which voyage the Romans first ascertained that Britain was an island,) and formed between the friths of Forth and Clyde, a rampart and a chain of garrisons; which secured the Roman provinces from their incursions.* During these military employments, Agricola was not inattentive to the arts of peace. He introduced amongst the Britains laws and civility; gave them a taste for the pursuits of agriculture; instructed them in letters and science; used every means to reconcile them to subjection; and gradually incorporated them with the empire.

The Britains gave no further inquietude; but the Caledonians, defended by their barren mountains, which secured them a retreat, made frequent incursions upon the cultivated lands. The better to protect the frontiers, Adrian, who visited the island, built a strong rampart between the river Tyne and the frith of Solway; a defence afterwards strengthened by a wall; traces of which remain at the present day. This was erected by Severus; who, after repelling the invaders, died at York: from which time, so profound a tranquillity prevailed in Britain, during all the emperors' reigns, that little mention is made of it by any historian.

But, that stupendous fabric, which had extended its conquests over so great a portion of the globe, began, at length, to approach its dissolution. Those barbarous nations of the continent, who had long been under the government of the Romans, had, whilst in the service of their conquerors, added discipline to their native bravery; and, allured by the prospect of so great a prize, they assailed, at once, the frontiers of the empire. The Romans were now obliged to concentrate their domestic legions, in which, only, they could place reliance; and collected their whole military force for the preservation of the capital and the adjacent provinces: those troops, therefore, which had held Britain

*It is extraordinary, that the English historians mention this voyage as having *discovered* the insular situation of Britain; thus, overlooking a term repeatedly used by Cæsar, in his Commentaries. For instance: "Tamen, magno sibi usui fore arbitrabatur, si modo *insulam* adisset, genus hominum perspexisset; loca, portus, aditus cognovisset." *Lib* IV. XX.

in subjection, and guarded it from the incursions of its northern invaders, were withdrawn.

The Picts and Scots, who inhabited those regions which lay beyond the defences formed by the Romans, now made irruptions; threatening the whole province with depredation and conquest. The former it is thought, were a tribe of Britains, who had been chased into the northern parts by Agricola. The latter were of the same Celtic origin; and were, previously, established in Ireland. These barbarians broke over the Roman wall; and, though a contemptible enemy, they met with no resistance from the unwarlike inhabitants. In this situation, the Britains applied to Rome, and obtained for their relief one legion; which soon drove the invaders into their ancient limits. The return, however, of this force, to the defence of the southern provinces of the empire, was a signal for a fresh invasion; which, by the assistance of a legion, was again repelled. But the Romans, reduced to extremity at home, could no longer afford succour to the Britains: and, after generously assisting them in renewing the wall of Severus, they bade
448. a final adieu; having been masters of the greater part of the island for nearly four centuries.

The earliest example of successful attention to literature, given by a native of the subjected districts, was by Helena, the daughter of Coilus, a tributary king of Britain, wife of the Roman emperor, Constantius Chlorus, and mother of Constantine the great, who was born in Britain. There was no woman of her time more accomplished, either in letters or the polite arts, or of more amiable disposition.

CHAPTER III.

THE BRITAINS.

UNABLE to protect themselves against their rapacious neighbours, the Britains regarded this present of liberty as a misfortune. The flower of their youth having accompanied Gratian and Constantine, two Romans who made an unsuccessful attempt on the imperial throne, the people were deprived of the assistance of those who were the most capable of uniting them by their advice. The Picts and Scots, relieved from the terror of the Roman arms,

now regarded Britain as their prize; and poured in with unabated ferocity. The Britains again made application to their former masters. Their ambassadors carried to Rome a letter from their countrymen; which was entitled, "The Groans of the Britains." The tenor of the epistle corresponded with the superscription; "The barbarians, on the one hand, chase us into the sea: the sea, on the other, throws us back upon the barbarians; so that we have only the hard choice left us, of perishing by the sword or by the waves."

But the Romans, pressed by the arms of Attila, the most formidable enemy that had ever assailed the empire, had no leisure to attend to the supplication of allies. Thus rejected, they abandoned their habitations; and, flying for refuge to the forests and mountains, suffered equally by hunger and by the enemy; until the barbarians, unable to exist in a land which they had desolated, retreated, with their spoils, into their own country.

Relieved from the presence of their invaders, the Britains returned to their usual occupations; and soon forgot their miseries in the comforts which succeeded. But they neglected to make provision against any future attacks. The precarious authority, enjoyed by the chiefs, in the various districts independent of each other, created a disunion, which greatly militated against the whole; and to this disadvantage, were added, their religious disputes, arising from the schismatical doctrines of Pelagius. Labouring under these domestic evils, and threatened by a foreign invasion, they sent into Germany, to implore the aid of the Saxons.

CHAPTER IV.

THE SAXONS.

THE ancient Germans were the most distinguished of ll the barbarous nations, for their valour and their attachment to liberty. Even when a monarchy was at any time established amongst them, the sovereign was directed, in every measure, by the approbation of the people. No unprincipled despot was allowed the power of sporting with the life, or with the property, of his fellow being. When

any important question was to be debated, the warriors met in arms; and freely expressed their disapproval, or their assent: the former by their murmurs; the latter, by the rattling of their armour. Their leaders were chosen for their merit; chiefly for their valour: and the contributions which they levied, were merely for subsistence; the honour of exalted rank being the only reward of their dangers and fatigues.

Of all those tribes, the Saxons were the most distinguished. War was their principal employment.

They had spread themselves from the most northern parts of Germany; had taken possession of all the sea-coast, from the mouth of the Rhine to Jutland; and had long infested, by their piracies, the southern parts of Britain, and the northern parts of Gaul. It may, therefore, reasonably be supposed, that they gladly accepted the invitation of the simple Britains.

450. Under the conduct of Hengist and Horsa, two brothers of great authority, the Saxons, amounting to sixteen-hundred, landed on the isle of Thanet; and, immediately marching against the Picts and Scots, made them fly before them. But these chiefs were determined to conquer only for their own advantage. They soon received a reinforcement of five-thousand of their countrymen, raised a dispute with the Britains, and formed an alliance with the Picts and Scots. A dreadful scene ensued, of slaughter, rapine, and devastation. The bravery of Vortimer, whom the Britains placed at their head, instead of his ignoble father, Vortigern, could preserve, only for a short time, his degenerate compatriots. Some remained in servitude under their treacherous victors: some fled to Gaul and there founded the province of Brittany; and others took shelter in the remote parts of Cornwall and Wales.

To share in the general plunder, the Northern hordes came over in succession. The invaders were chiefly Saxons, Angles, and Jutes; who all spoke the same language, and passed under the common appellation, sometimes of Saxons, sometimes of Angles. But, neither amusement nor instruction would be given, by a tedious detail of the barbarous names of those adventurers, who participated in the equally barbarous transactions of that age. The native characters are scarcely more worthy of remark. The only person of interest was Arthur, prince of the Silures; who, by his heroic valour, about the year 508, sustained the declining for[illegible]es of his country, and was much

celebrated by the ancient bards; but his achievements are blended with so many fables, as almost to induce a doubt of his existence.

CHAPTER V.

THE HEPTARCHY.

AFTER a violent contest, of nearly one-hundred-and-fifty years, seven kingdoms were formed in Britain; known by the name of the Saxon Heptarchy. These were Kent, Sussex, Wessex, East-Anglia, Mercia, Essex, and Northumberland; the respective conquests of Hengist, Ælla, Cerdic and his son Kenric, Uffa, Crida, Erkenwin, and Ethelfrid. The kingdom of Kent comprised the counties now known by the names of Kent, Middlesex, and Essex, and a part of Surry: Sussex, or South Saxony, the county of Sussex, and the remainder of Surry: Wessex, or West Saxony, Hants, Dorset, Wilts, Berks, and the Isle of Wight: East-Anglia, Cambridge, Suffolk and Norfolk. Mercia extended over all the middle counties, from the banks of the Severn, to the frontiers of East-Anglia and Essex. Essex, or East Saxony, included Essex, Middlesex, and a part of Hertfordshire; Northumberland, the counties of Northumberland and Durham, and some of the eastern counties of Scotland.

The whole southern part of the island, except Wales and Cornwall, which still remained unsubdued, had totally changed its inhabitants, language, customs, and political institutions. The Britains, under the Roman dominion, had advanced so far, in arts and civilization, that they had built twenty eight considerable cities, besides a great number of villages; but their Saxon conquerors threw every thing back into its ancient barbarity.

597. At this period, there occurred a happy and memorable event; the contemplation of which relieves us from the disagreeable feelings excited by the disgusting transactions of those ages. The British Saxons were now taught the benign principles of Christianity. The ancient inhabitants of the districts which the former had usurped, were, from the earliest promulgation of that sacred religion, enrolled amongst its votaries: but its practice had ceased

in those parts, upon their dispersion, and was confined to Wales, the remote country of their retreat. The superstition of the British Saxons, in common with that of their German brethren of the Continent, was of the grossest and most barbarous kind. They were idolaters: they worshipped the sun and moon; and adored the god of thunder, by the name of Thor. But, Woden, whom they conceived was the ancestor of all their princes, and regarded as the god of war, naturally became their supreme deity, and the chief object of their worship. They believed, that if they gained the favour of this divinity, by their valour, (the most esteemed virtue amongst barbarians,) they would be admitted after death, into his hall, and there, satiate themselves with ale, from the skulls of their enemies whom they had slain in battle.

Previous to his ascending the papal chair, Gregory, surnamed the Great, had observed in the streets of Rome, some Saxon youths, of interesting appearance, and, struck with the beauty of their blooming countenances, asked, to what country they belonged. Being told that they were *Angles;* he replied, that they ought, more properly, to be denominated *Angels;* that it was a pity the prince of darkness should enjoy so fair a prey; and that so beautiful an exterior should cover a mind devoid of righteousness and grace. He then inquired the name of their king. Being informed that it was *Ella;* "Allelujah," cried he: "we must endeavour that the praises of God be sung in their country." Moved by these happy allusions, when he obtained the pontificate, he appointed Augustine, a pious monk, to undertake the laudable, but dangerous, duty, of converting the British Saxons to Christianity.

A favourable incident had prepared the way for introducing Christianity amongst these people. Ethelbert, king of Kent, had married Bertha, the daughter of Caribert, king of Paris, one of the descendants of Clovis, the conqueror of Gaul; which princess, being of the Christian faith, had brought over with her a French bishop, and conducted herself in so irreproachable a manner, as to support its virtuous precepts by a virtuous example; and employed every art of insinuation and address, to reconcile her husband to her religion.

Having arrived at the isle of Thanet, Augustine sent an interpreter to Ethelbert, the king of Kent, (a great-grandson of the first Saxon invader, Hengist) declaring, that he had been sent from Rome with offers of eternal salvation

Ethelbert invited Augustine to his court. He was then informed, by the pious stranger, that everlasting joys, and a kingdom without end, would be the reward of his embracing the Christian religion.—"Your words and promises," replied the king, "are fair; but, as they are new, and uncertain, I cannot, immediately, relinquish the principles which I have inherited from my ancestors. You are welcome, however, to remain here in peace: I will supply you with all necessaries, and permit you to explain your doctrine to my subjects."

This conduct of Ethelbert was discreet and generous; worthy of imitation, even at the present day. He soon espoused the religion of Augustine; and his subjects, also, with the inhabitants of the other Saxon kingdoms, were, in a short time, converted to Christianity.

Ethelbert's conversion, joined to his matrimonial alliance, produced an intercourse with the French, the Italians, and other nations of the Continent. This had a happy effect. It raised his subjects from the ignorance and barbarity, in which all the Saxon tribes had been long involved. With the consent of his people, he enacted a body of laws; the first that any of the northern conquerors committed to writing.

After many revolutions, this monarchy, which, on the death of Ethelbert, descended to his son Eadbald, fell, with the others of the Heptarchy, under the dominion of Egbert, king of Wessex; who united them into one kingdom, which he named England; signifying the land of the Angles.

The Saxons who subdued Britain, as they had enjoyed great liberty in their own country, obstinately maintained that blessing in their new settlement. Their kings possessed a very limited authority. So far from being entitled to an arbitrary power, they were only the first among the citizens. Their influence depended more on their personal qualities, than on their station. They were even so much on a level with the other inhabitants, that a stated price was affixed on their head; and their murderer was exonerated by the payment of a fine, in the same manner as for the murder of the meanest subject. All the kingdoms of the heptarchy were, occasionally, united; and in each there was a national council, called a Wittenagemot, or assembly of the wise men; whose consent was required for enacting laws, and ratifying the chief acts of administration.

The Anglo-Saxons, in common with all the northern nations of Europe, were not very strict in maintaining a regu

lar succession of their princes. Though they paid great respect to the royal family, they either had no rule, or none that was steadily observed, in filling the vacant throne. If any king, on his death, left a son, of an age and capacity fit for government, he naturally ascended the throne; but, if he was a minor, it was occupied by his uncle, or the next prince of the blood. All these changes, however, and indeed the ordinary administration of government, required the express concurrence, or at least the implied consent, of the people.

The punishments inflicted by the Anglo-Saxon courts of judicature, as well as the proofs employed, were different from those which prevail amongst all civilized nations, in the present age. Indemnity for all kinds of wounds received, and for death itself, was fixed, by the Saxon laws, at a regular price. A wound of an inch long, under the hair, was recompensed by one shilling; a scar, of equal size, upon the face, by two shillings; thirty shillings were received for the loss of an ear; and other scars were compensated in proportion. Their mode of evidence was still further dissimilar to the modern practice. When any controversy about a fact became too intricate for their judges to unravel, they had recourse to (what they called) the judgment of God; that is, to fortune; and their methods of consulting this oracle were various. The most remarkable custom was by the ordeal. It was practised, generally, by boiling water, or red-hot iron. The water or iron being consecrated by many ceremonies, the person accused either took up a stone immersed in the former a certain depth, or carried the iron a certain distance; and his hand being then wrapped up, and the covering sealed for three days, if there appeared, on examination, no marks of burning, he was pronounced innocent; if otherwise, guilty. The trial by cold water, was different. Into this, the culprit was thrown, his feet and his hands being tied. If he swam, he was guilty; if he sunk, he was considered innocent; though, to us, it appears extraordinary, that any innocent person could ever be acquitted by the one trial, or any criminal be convicted by the other.

This purgation by ordeal seems to have been very ancient, and universal in the times of superstitious barbarity. It was known to the ancient Greeks; and there is also a very peculiar species of water-ordeal, said to prevail amongst the Indians, on the coast of Malabar; where, a person, accused of any enormous crime, is obliged to swim

over a broad river, abounding with crocodiles; and, if he escapes unhurt, he is reputed innocent. In Siam, too, besides the usual methods of fire and water ordeal, both parties are sometimes exposed to the fury of a tiger, let loose for that purpose: and, if the beast spares either, that person is accounted innocent; if neither, both are held to be guilty; but, if he spares both, the trial is incomplete.

It is easy, to trace out the traditional relics of this water ordeal, in the ignorant barbarity, still practised in many countries, to discover witches, by casting them into a pool of water, and drowning them to prove their innocence.

The most ancient British historian was Gildas; from whose writings, dated about the middle of the sixth century, is derived the only information of that period. John of Beverly, archbishop of York, who died in the year 721, was one of the best scholars of his time; and his pupil, Bede, though possessing all the puerile credulity of those days, shone as a meteor, in the darkness of a barbarous age.

CHAPTER VI.

ENGLAND.

Egbert, Ethelwolf, Ethelbald and Ethelbert, Ethelred, Alfred the Great, Edward the Elder, Athelstan, Edmund, Edred, Edwy, Edgar, Edward the Martyr, Ethelred the second, Edmund Ironside.

827. FROM this period, our history will be less difficult of delineation, and more interesting to the reader; as the materials are concentrated, and the events assume some degree of resemblance to those of the present age.

The inhabitants of the several provinces showed no desire of revolting from the authority of Egbert. Their language and laws, their customs and religion, were, every where, nearly the same; and, in all the subjected states, the race of their ancient kings was totally extinct.

By living in the court, and serving in the armies, of Charlemagne, Egbert acquired those accomplishments, which afterwards enabled him to make so shining a figure on the throne.

Governed by a monarch of superior talents and the highest degree of prudence, and strengthened by their political union, the people had reason to expect, that, thenceforward, they would be guarded against inroad and devastation. But these flattering hopes were soon destroyed. The Danes, who, at that period, committed most barbarous ravages, appeared upon the coast. The causes which produced the invasions by this formidable enemy, deserve attention. The emperor Charlemagne, though naturally generous and humane, had been led, by an erroneous application of the Christian doctrine, to use great severity against the pagan Saxons in Germany; and had obliged them, to make a seeming renunciation of idolatry. But that religion, which had been easily introduced amongst the British Saxons, by persuasion and address, appeared odious to their German brethren, when imposed upon them by the sword. The most warlike of the latter fled into Jutland, to escape the fury of persecution; and, assisted by the people of that country, they invaded the provinces of France; then but feebly protected by the degenerate posterity of Charlemagne; and, under the name of Normans, (signifying men of the north,) became the terror of all whom they attacked.

Their first appearance, in Britain, was in the year 787. The English, being of the same religion as the French, were equally the object of retaliation. The next alarm was given about six years afterwards; when a body of these pirates robbed a monastery. But their ships being damaged in a storm, and their leader slain, they were at last defeated. These were only the precursors of more serious attacks: the Danes followed their example; and now began those formidable invasions, which make so considerable a figure in the history of those times. They were, however, by the activity of Egbert, driven from the kingdom.

832.

Ethelwolf, the son of Egbert, had neither the vigour, nor the abilities of his father. He was better qualified for governing a convent than a kingdom. He divided his dominions; and gave the provinces of Essex, Kent, and Sussex, to his eldest son, Athelstan.

837.

The incursions of the Danes had now become almost annual; and every part of England was exposed to continual alarm. Their vessels, being small, were easily run up the creeks and rivers; upon the banks of which they were drawn ashore; where, an intrenchment was formed around

them, and guarded by a part of their number. The rest then scattered themselves over the country; and, carrying away the inhabitants and the cattle, they all hastened to their boats, and quickly disappeared.

Athelstan having died, and Ethelwolf being absent, on a pilgrimage, at Rome, Ethelbald, the second son, formed a project for dethroning his father. This induced the king to make a second partition of his dominions; and give to Ethelbald the sovereignty of the western division. After this, Ethelwolf lived only two years. He left four sons, Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred and Alfred; having, by his will, divided England between the two eldest.

The ecclesiastics now made rapid advances in the acquisition of power and grandeur. Though parishes had been instituted in England nearly two centuries before, the clergy had not, until the present reign, got possession of the tithes: but, a superstitious and imbecile monarch being on the throne, when the people were discouraged by their losses from the Danes, and terrified by the fear of future invasions, they were susceptible of any impression, that bore the appearance of religion; unable to discern that, though all the Mosaic law was binding on the Jews, only the moral part of it was obligatory on Christians.

857. Ethelbald was a profligate prince; and lived but a short time after obtaining the government of his province. Ethelbert, who united his deceased brother's division with his own, conducted himself, during a five years' reign, in a manner more becoming his birth and situation, and defeated the Danes, with considerable loss, at Winchester.

866. Ethelbert was succeeded by his brother Ethelred; who, though he defended himself with bravery, enjoyed, during his whole reign, no cessation of the Danish irruptions.

871. Alfred, (the youngest son of Ethelwolf) who followed his brother, Ethelred, gave early indications of those great virtues, and illustrious talents, by which, in the most difficult circumstances, he saved his country from bondage and from ruin. He was now twenty-two years of age. When a boy, he had been twice in Rome; yet, it does not appear, that he made, in consequence, any advances in his education; as, he had reached his twelfth year, without having obtained a knowledge of the lowest elements of literature. His genius was at length roused by the recital of Saxon poems; and thenceforward he ap

plied himself to study, so assiduously, that he soon became acquainted with many of the ancient Greek and Latin works. But, when called to the protection of his country, he shook off his literary employments, and took the field, with alacrity, to oppose the Danes.

875. A new swarm of those ravagers came over, under Guthrum, Oscitel, and Amund; and, having joined their countrymen at Repton, spread themselves over the whole kingdom. The king exerted himself so vigorously, that, in the course of one year, he fought eight battles, and reduced them to the greatest extremity. A fresh band, however, of these robbers, landed on the coast. This so disheartened his subjects, that many of them fled out of the kingdom; and others submitted to the conquerors. The utmost energies of Alfred were now insufficient to rouse the people to resistance. He was obliged to relinquish the ensigns of royalty, and, in the humblest disguise, to seek shelter from the enemy. He concealed himself in a peasant's habit, and lived for some time in the cabin of a herd, who had been intrusted with the care of his own cows. One day, the wife of the herd, observing him engaged by the fire-side in trimming his bows and arrows, desired him to take care of some cakes that were toasting; but Alfred, whose thoughts were otherwise engaged, neglected his charge. The good woman, finding her cakes all burned, scolded him severely; upbraiding him, that he always seemed well pleased when eating her cakes, though he was thus negligent in toasting them.

When Alfred found that the enemy had abated the eagerness of their search for him, he collected some of his retainers; and, having retired into the centre of a bog, formed by the stagnant waters of the Thone and Parrett, in Somersetshire, he there discovered about two acres of firm ground, upon which he built a habitation. This place was secured by the difficulty of the passes, and by the forests and morasses by which it was surrounded. He called it Æthelingey, signifying the isle of nobles. It now bears the name of Athelney. Thence, he made frequent sallies upon the Danes; who often felt the vigour of his arm, but knew not from what quarter they received the blow.

After he had remained in this insulated retreat during a whole year, he heard of an exhilarating event. Hubba, the Dane, having devastated Wales, had landed in Devonshire, and laid siege to the castle of Kenwith. Oddune, earl of Devonshire, with his followers, had taken shelter

there; and, determined, by some vigorous action, to prevent the necessity of submitting to the barbarians, made a spirited sally on the Danes, routed them, killed their chief, and got possession of the famous Reafen, or enchanted standard. This ensign, containing the figure of a raven, was made by the three sisters of Hubba, with many magical incantations; and the superstitious Danes erroneously believed, that the good or the bad success of any enterprise was prognosticated by its different movements.

Encouraged by this conduct of his subjects, Alfred ventured from his retreat. But, lest he might prematurely urge them to the noble attempt of restoring their liberties, he resolved, himself, to inspect the situation of the enemy. He accordingly entered their camp in the disguise of a harper; passed every where unsuspected; so entertained them with his music and facetious stories, that he was introduced even into the tent of Guthrum; with whom, he remained for several days; and, having remarked the unguarded manner of the Danes, and their inconsiderate wasting of what they gained by rapine and violence, he then departed.

Animated still further, by these favourable appearances, he summoned his principal subjects, with their warlike followers, to a rendezvous at Brixton, on the borders of Selwood Forest. At the appointed day, they joyfully resorted to meet their prince. With shouts of applause, they saluted their beloved monarch, whom they had long regarded as dead; but who, with voice and looks expressive of confidence, now called them forth to victory and freedom. He conducted them to Eddington, where the Danes were encamped; and, directing his unexpected attack against their most unguarded quarter, instantly routed them, with great slaughter. Those who remained, he settled in East-Anglia and Northumberland. But, that he might have at least one pledge of their submission, he previously stipulated that they should embrace Christianity: to which, Guthrum and his followers consented. They were then all admitted to baptism. The king answered for the Danish chieftain at the font, gave him the name of Athelstan, and received him as his adopted son.

Alfred now employed his time in restoring that order which had been shaken by so many violent convulsions. He established military institutions, infused a taste for industry, and a love of justice, and provided against future calamities. As equality in the administration of the laws, is a great source of concord, he placed the Danes on the

same footing with the English. After rebuilding London, which had been destroyed in the reign of Ethelwolf, he very prudently organized a regular militia, to whom he assigned a rotation of duty; so that, whilst a part were employed in arms, the remainder attended to the cultivation of the land; and, wisely judging that the best method of opposing an enemy, who made incursions by sea, was to meet them on the same element, he provided a naval power; an important defence, which, hitherto, had been totally neglected by the English: by which means, he repelled several inroads of the Danes, and maintained his kingdom, during many years, in tranquillity.

893. But Hastings, the famous Danish chieftain, appeared off the coast of Kent, with a fleet of three-hundred-and-thirty sail; and he himself, with a division of his vessels, entering the Thames, commenced most destructive ravages. Their progress, however, was soon arrested. Alfred, with his usual alertness and intrepidity, took the field; and chased the greater part of those freebooters out of the country. He had to contend also with the East-Anglian Danes; who, encouraged by the presence of their countrymen, broke into rebellion, and embarked in upwards of two-hundred vessels, with which they appeared before Exeter. These, he lost not a moment in opposing. He instantly marched against this new enemy; and, falling suddenly upon them, pursued them to their ships.

In the mean time, Hastings advanced towards the interior, and plundered all around him. But he soon had reason to repent his temerity. Assisted by a party of the citizens, the English army, which had been left in London, defeated him at Bamflete; and carried off his wife and two sons; whom Alfred generously restored; on condition that the Dane should evacuate the kingdom.

Our limits will not allow us to follow this monarch, through the almost innumerable struggles which he maintained with these atrocious barbarians, whom he at length subdued. Having taken prisoners a large body, who had landed under the command of Sigefert, a Northumbrian, he tried them at Winchester, then the capital of his dominions, and hanged them all, as pirates and the common enemies of mankind; a well timed severity; which, together with the excellent posture of defence, every where established, again restored the happiness of peace.

The Welsh having acknowledged his authority, which was now extended from the English Channel to the frontiers

901. of Scotland, he died, in the fifty-second year of his age, after a glorious reign of nearly thirty years; having justly obtained the appellation of Alfred the Great, and Founder of the English Monarchy.

In private, or in public life, the merit of this prince has never been excelled. His only competitor is the illustrious Washington. But, let us not, by endeavouring, pre-eminently, to exalt one hero, unwillingly lessen our admiration of the other. Alfred seems, to use the language of an elegant historian, "to be the model of that perfect character, which the philosophers have been fond of delineating, rather as a fiction of their imagination, than in hopes of ever seeing it really existing; and nature, as if willing that so fine a production should be set in the fairest light, had bestowed on him every bodily accomplishment,—vigour of limbs, dignity of shape and air, with a pleasant and agreeable countenance."

When the Danes were subdued, Alfred found the kingdom in a most wretched condition. The country was overrun with straggling parties of those people; and the greater number, even of the English, reduced to extreme indigence, had shaken off the bands of government, and plundered their fellow citizens, in every direction. That he might render the execution of justice strict and regular, he divided England into shires, or counties; and subdivided these into hundreds and tithings. Ten neighbouring householders were formed into a corporation; under the name of a tithing, decennary, or fribourg; over which, he appointed one person, called a headbourg, to preside. The members were held accountable for each other's conduct; and every man who did not join one of these associations, was considered as an outlaw.

So regular a distribution of the people, with limitations so strict, may not be necessary where men are inured to obedience to the laws; indeed, in a polished state, it would be subversive of liberty; but, amongst those licentious people, it was well calculated to extend the salutary discipline of government.

All trifling disputes were referred to the decennary; but, in matters of greater moment, in appeals, or in controversies between men of different decennaries, the cause was brought before the hundred; which consisted of ten decennaries, or a hundred families of freemen, and assembled once every four weeks. Their method of decision resembled the present mode by juries; the best institution that

ever was contrived, for the administration of justice, and the preservation of liberty: but juries were not the invention of Alfred, having been used before in England, and been long in practice amongst all the German nations. Besides these monthly meetings, there was an annual convention; for inquiring into crimes, correcting magisterial misconduct, and a general inspection of the police. Superior to this, was the county court; which met twice a year—after Michaelmas and Easter; consisting of all the free holders of the county, who possessed an equal vote in the decisions. The bishop and alderman presided there: the business was to determine appeals, and decide controversies between men of different hundreds.

From all these courts, there lay an appeal, to the king himself, in council; where, he was indefatigable in despatching the numerous causes which came before him. The better, however, to guide the magistrates in the administration of justice, Alfred formed a body of laws; which though now lost, served long as the basis of English jurisprudence. This code is generally esteemed the origin of the "Common Law." He appointed meetings of the several states, to be held twice a year in London; which he had repaired and beautified, and, thus, rendered the capital of the kingdom.

The similarity of these institutions, to the customs of the ancient Germans, to the practice of the other northern conquerors, and to the Saxon laws, during the Heptarchy, prevents us from regarding Alfred as the sole author of this plan of government; but leads us rather to suppose, that, like a wise man, he contented himself with reforming, extending, and properly applying, the institutions, which he had found previously established.

It is recorded of Alfred, that he hung forty-four corrupt judges, in one year; and so exact was the general police, that, it is said, he suspended, near the highways, bracelets of gold; which no man dared to touch. Yet, amidst all these rigours of justice, this great prince preserved an inviolable regard for the liberties of his people. In his will, is this memorable sentiment: "*It is just, that the English should always remain as free as their own thoughts.*"

At the time of Alfred's ascending the throne, there was not one person, south of the Thames, and very few in the northern parts, who could interpret the Latin service of the church. But this prince invited over the most eminent scholars from the continent; established schools in all

parts of the kingdom; and founded, or, at least, re-established the University of Oxford. He was an author of high reputation; and translated many Latin and Greek works; amongst which were the elegant fables of Æsop. He also invited industrious foreigners to repeople those districts which had been desolated by the Danes; encouraged manufactures, and rewarded the inventors of ingenious arts. He usually divided his time into three equal portions. One was employed in study and devotion: another, in the despatch of business: a third, in sleep, and the recruiting of his body, by diet and exercise: which divisions he exactly measured, by the use of burning tapers, of equal lengths; an expedient suited to that rude age, when the geometry of dialling, and the mechanism of clocks and watches, were totally unknown.

The language of England had not, as yet, assumed an appearance, in which we can distinguish the dawning of the present English. Alfred's imitation of Boethius, taken as a specimen, displays the Saxon in its highest state of ancient purity, with scarcely any intermixture of the Roman.

Alfred left three sons, and three daughters. The eldest son, Edmund, having died, in his father's lifetime, without children, the second, Edward, succeeded to the throne.

This prince, known by the appellation of Edward the Elder, possessed considerable military talent; and successfully combated every attack made on the tranquillity of the kingdom; whether by foreign, or domestic, enemies. It was he who founded the University of Cambridge.

925. Edward was followed by Athelstan; who, though a natural son of the preceding king, yet ascended the throne in preference to Edward's legitimate children; whose tender age rendered them incapable of governing a country, so much exposed to irruptions from abroad, and convulsions within itself. By these national calamities, Athelstan was severely harassed; but, by his great abilities, he preserved his dominions inviolate.

He maintained a successful war against the king of Scotland, for having protected Anlaf, a Danish nobleman, who had rebelled. When in the neighbourhood of the English army, Anlaf employed the artifice formerly practised by Alfred against the Danes; and entered Athelstan's camp, in the habit of a minstrel. He so highly pleased the soldiers, that they introduced him to the king's tent; and, having played before the prince and his nobles, he

was dismissed with a handsome present. His prudence prevented him from refusing the present, but his pride determined him, on his departure, to bury it, when he thought that he was unobserved. But, a soldier in the English camp, who had formerly served under Anlaf, having entertained suspicion on the first appearance of the minstrel, had narrowly watched him; and, regarding this last action as a full proof of Anlaf's disguise, he carried the intelligence to Athelstan. The king foresaw that the incident might be attended with important consequences. He removed his station in the camp; and, as a bishop arrived that evening with some troops, (for the clergy were then no less warlike than the civil magistrates,) he occupied, with his train, the very place which had been left vacant by the king. The precaution of Athelstan was found prudent. No sooner was it dark, than Anlaf broke into the camp; and, hastening directly to the place where he had left the king's tent, put the bishop to death, before he had time to make defence.

Athelstan caused the Scriptures to be translated into the Saxon language; and passed a remarkable law, which displays a mind considerably more enlightened, than could be looked for in those days of almost universal ignorance. It enacted, that a merchant, who, on his own account, had made three long sea-voyages, should be admitted to the rank of a thane; a title equivalent to that of gentleman.

941. Edmund, a paternal brother of Athelstan, was very young when he came to the crown, and, during his short reign, met with considerable disturbance. At a festival in Gloucester, he was killed in a rencounter with a notorious robber; who had the presumption to enter the hall where the king was sitting at dinner.

946. The children of Edmund, being very young, were set aside in favour of his brother Edred.

In this reign, the monks, whose introduction into the kingdom was coëval with that of Christianity, greatly increased in number; and, by the assistance of Dunstan, abbot of Glastonbury, the monastic rules were rendered much more rigid than before. This ecclesiastic, who is known by the name of St. Dunstan, secluded himself entirely from the world. He framed a cell, so small, that he could neither stand erect in it, nor stretch out his limbs during repose; and here employed himself perpetually, either in devotion or manual labour. By these solitary occupations, he became gradually insane, and imagined chimeras, which,

being believed by himself and his stupid votaries, procured him a character of great sanctity amongst the people. He fancied that the devil, in his frequent visits, was one day more earnest than usual in his temptations; till, provoked at his importunities, he seized him by the nose, with a pair of red-hot pincers, as he put his head into the cell, and that he held him there, till that malignant spirit made the whole neighbourhood resound with his bellowings.

A violent altercation now occurred, in consequence of a new order of the Roman church, that a strict celibacy should be observed, by the monks, and all orders of the clergy; which, before the death of the present monarch, was, in a great measure, established.

955. The next king was Edwy; nephew of the last monarch, and son of Edmund, his predecessor. This prince, who ascended the throne at the age of sixteen, was endowed with the most promising virtues; and, distinguished by a handsome exterior. His reign was short and unfortunate; but it might have been equally happy for himself and his subjects, had he not been engaged in a controversy with the monks. This arose from his having espoused, against the remonstrances of the bishops, a beautiful princess of the royal blood, named Elgiva; who was within the degrees of affinity forbidden by the canon law.

By the application of a red-hot iron, his queen was deprived of her fatal beauty; after which, she was carried into Ireland; there, to remain, in perpetual exile. Being, however, cured of her wounds, she escaped into England; but, when flying to the embraces of her husband, she was again seized; and was deprived of life, in the most cruel manner. Meanwhile, Edwy was excommunicated; which event was soon afterwards followed by his death.

958. Edwy was succeeded by his brother, Edgar. Though he ascended the throne at an early age, yet he soon discovered an excellent capacity: his reign is one of the most fortunate that the ancient history of England can produce. He built and supported a powerful navy; which was always employed in the protection of the coast. His character, however, would be more estimable, had he confined the exercise of his talents to the preservation of his dominions, and not employed them in the subjugation of his neighbours. If the account be true, which mentions his having been rowed upon the Dee by eight of his tributary kings, we have more reason to admire the grandeur of the scene, than compliment him on his moderation

in prosperity. The reputation of Edgar encouraged many foreigners to settle in the kingdom. These, we are told, contributed to corrupt the simple manners of the natives; but, as this simplicity had not preserved them from barbarity, or from treachery, one of the greatest of all vices, it is probable that their morals did not suffer much injury from the change.

Edgar's character, in private life, throws a darkening reflection on his lustre as a prince. In the gratification of his desires, he was unrestrained. The circumstances of his marriage with Elfrida, are alike singular and criminal. Elfrida was the daughter and heiress of Olgar, earl of Devonshire; and, though she had never appeared at court, she had filled all England with the reputation of her beauty. Edgar was not inattentive to such reports. He resolved, if he found her charms correspondent to her fame, to obtain possession of her; and, as her family was noble, not to court her as a mistress, but to place her on his throne. He commissioned earl Athelwold, his favourite, to visit her father's castle, on some pretence, and bring him a certain account of Elfrida's beauty. Athelwold, found her more beautiful than she had been reported; and, being actuated by the most ardent love, he determined to sacrifice to his passion, his fidelity to his master. He informed Edgar that the report was untrue; that she was not handsome; that she was, on the contrary, of a homely appearance; but, that though she was a very unfitting partner for a king, she would, on account of her great riches, be an advantageous match for an humble earl. Edgar consented to his intended suit; and Athelwold became her husband. The king was soon informed of the truth; but, before he would execute vengeance on Athelwold's treachery, he resolved to ascertain, with his own eyes, the certainty and full extent of his guilt. He told him, that he intended to pay him a visit, at his castle; and Athelwold, as he could not refuse this honour, begged only leave to go before him, a few hours, that he might the better prepare every thing for his reception. He then discovered the whole matter to Elfrida; and begged her, if she had any regard, either to his own honour or his life, to conceal from Edgar, by every disguise, that fascinating beauty, which had seduced him into treachery and falsehood. Elfrida promised to comply though nothing was further from her intention. She considered herself little obliged to a man, who had deprived her of a crown; and did not despair, even yet, of obtaining

that station, by her charms, of which she had been deprived by her husband's artifice. She appeared before the king, in her richest attire, and with the most engaging airs; and excited, at once, the highest love towards herself, and the most furious revenge against her husband. Dissembling his passion, Edgar seduced him into a wood, on pretence of hunting, stabbed him with his own hand, and, soon afterwards, publicly espoused Elfrida.

By the judicious policy of this monarch, a pecuniary inducement was offered, which caused the extirpation of wolves in England and Wales.

Edgar died after a reign of sixteen years, and was succeeded by his son, Edward.

975. Edward's reign was short, and his end tragical. But, though the murder which terminated his life, had no connexion with any religious opinions, his youth, his innocence, and the manner of his death, produced so much compassion, that the people, believing that miracles were wrought at his tomb, gave him the name of Martyr.

His stepmother, Elfrida, had a son Ethelred, seven years old, whom she attempted to raise to the throne. Yet Edward had always shown marks of the greatest regard for her; and the most tender affection for his half-brother. He was hunting one day, in a forest in Dorsetshire; and, being led by the chace near Corse-castle, where Elfrida resided, he paid her a visit, unattended by any of his retinue, and thereby presented her with the opportunity which she had long desired. After he had remounted his horse, he requested a drink; and, whilst he was holding the cup to his head, a servant of Elfrida gave him a stab behind. The prince, finding himself wounded, put spurs to his horse: but, becoming faint by the loss of blood, he fell from the saddle, his foot stuck in the stirrup, and he was thus dragged along by his unruly horse, till he expired.

Elfrida built monasteries and underwent penances, as an atonement for her guilt; but she could never, by all her hypocrisy and remorse, recover the good opinion of the public.

979. To him, succeeded Ethelred, his half-brother: to whom, historians give the epithet of Unready; from his want of promptness in the hour of danger.

The northern invaders, aware of the favourable opportunity now afforded, by his inactivity and the bad conduct of those intrusted with the reins of government; of whom, Alfric, Duke of Mercia, was the most infamous; made a

powerful descent, under Sweyn, king of Denmark, and Olave, king of Norway. A numerous army was assembled to oppose them. A general engagement ensued: but, in consequence of the cowardice or treachery of their three commanders, Trithegist, Frena, and Godwin, (all of Danish extraction) the English were defeated; and, after many other severe conflicts, Ethelred purchased a precarious peace; and Sweyn with his associate, Olave, evacuated the kingdom. But this shameful compromise served as an incentive to further inroads. Sweyn, shortly after, recommenced his invasions. The English, therefore, now devoid both of prudence and unanimity in council, and of courage and conduct in the field, had recourse to their former weak expedient; and again ignominiously purchased by their gold, what they might have gloriously gained by the sword.

After an unfortunate reign of thirty-five years, Ethelred died, leaving two sons by his first marriage; Edmund, who succeeded him, and Edwy, whom Canute afterwards murdered. His two sons, Alfred and Edward, by his second marriage, with Emma, sister of Richard, duke of Normandy, were immediately upon Ethelred's death conveyed into Normandy, by their mother.

1016. Edmund, who had distinguished himself in the preceding reign, was, from his hardy valour, named Ironside. Though his courage and abilities might have been adequate to prevent his country from declining, they were unequal to the task of raising it from its degradation. Frustrated in his endeavours by the disaffection of his nobility and prelates, and wearied by their importunities, he consented to divide the kingdom with Canute the Dane: to whom, was given the northern division; comprising East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumberland. In a month after this partition, Edmund was murdered at Oxford.

CHAPTER VII.

THE DANES.

Canute the Great, Harold Harefoot, Hardicanute.

1017. CANUTE, the son and successor of Sweyn, king of Denmark, now ascended the throne of England:

in which usurpation, he was aided by some nobles, who falsely interpreted the treaty, made with Edmund, at Gloucester.

Edmund Ironside had left two sons, Edwin and Edward; both in their minority. These young princes were sent by Canute to his ally, the king of Sweden; whom he requested to despatch them. But the Swedish monarch, too generous to comply, conveyed them to Solomon, King of Hungary; to be educated at his court. Edwin married Solomon's sister; and died soon after, without issue. Edward espoused a daughter of the emperor, Henry the second; from which marriage, sprung Edgar Atheling, who will hereafter appear as a claimant of the English throne.

Canute reigned eighteen years; leaving three sons: Sweyn, who succeeded to the crown of Norway; which his father had won by conquest: Hardicanute, then on the throne of Denmark, whose mother was Emma, widow of Ethelred the Unready, and sister of Richard, duke of Normandy: and Harold, who followed his father, as king of England.

The epithet, attached to the name of Canute, as well as to that of many other princes, is not, by the inexperienced reader, to be construed as implying any extraordinary share of virtue; such virtue as adorns the patriotic citizen. Great, when applied by the interested adulators of royalty, too often refers to those qualities of the mind, and acts of martial prowess, which are conspicuously exerted in the oppression of an unresisting people, or in the awful destruction of an unoffending neighbour.

1035. Assisted by earl Godwin, a powerful nobleman, Harold, surnamed Harefoot, from his swiftness in running, distinguished himself by cruelty and injustice.

1039. Hardicanute, (or Canute the Hardy,) his successor, was, upon his arrival from Denmark, joyfully received by the English. But, very different feelings were soon produced by his atrocity. In all his cruel and tyrannical proceedings, he, too, was assisted by Godwin. This nobleman, being charged with the murder of prince Alfred, a son of Ethelred the Unready, and maternal brother of Hardicanute, in order to appease the king, made him a present of a splendid galley. It was rowed by eighty men; each of whom wore upon his arm a golden bracelet, weighing sixteen ounces, and had his other appointments of the most sumptuous kind. The king, pleased by its magnificence, quickly forgot the murder; and, on Godwin's swearing

that he was innocent of the imputed crime, obtained for him an acquittal.

This violent reign was of very short duration. Hardicanute died suddenly at the marriage of a Danish lord; which it is probable he attended to gratify his habit of intemperance.

CHAPTER VIII.

SAXON LINE RESTORED.

Edward the Confessor, (Harold the second.)

1041. EDWARD, the youngest and only surviving son of Ethelred the Unready, and half-brother of Hardicanute, (their mother being Emma, widow of Ethelred,) was at this time fortunately at court; and, as Sweyn, the eldest son of Canute, was in Norway, and the last two kings had died without issue, the English embraced the favourable opportunity of shaking off the Danish yoke. Though, however, the descendants of Edmund Ironside were the true heirs of the Saxon family, yet their absence, in so remote a country as Hungary, appeared a sufficient reason for their exclusion.

The king, by the mildness of his conduct, soon reconciled the Danish inhabitants to his administration; so that all national distinctions gradually disappeared. In most of the provinces, the Danes were interspersed with the English: they spoke nearly the same language: they varied little in their laws or manners; and there is no further mention in history of any dissimilarity between them. Edward was educated in Normandy, and had contracted many intimacies with the natives of that country, as well as a partiality for their manners. The court of England was soon filled with Normans; who, being distinguished both by the favour of Edward, and a degree of cultivation superior to that of the English, soon rendered their language, laws, and customs, fashionable in the kingdom. The study of the French tongue became general; and that language was used, in their deeds and other papers, by the lawyers.

The most eminent character that appeared in this reign,

was Siward, earl of Northumberland. This nobleman, besides his unwearied exertions in defence of the government, against the attacks of its internal enemies, particularly Godwin, acquired honour to England, by his successful management of the only foreign enterprise undertaken during the reign of Edward. Duncan, king of Scotland, a prince of very gentle disposition, having been assassinated by Macbeth, a powerful nobleman nearly allied to the Scottish crown; Siward, whose daughter had been married to Duncan, embraced, by Edward's concurrence, the protection of his distressed family; marched an army into Scotland; and, having defeated and killed Macbeth in battle, restored Malcolm, Duncan's son and heir, to the throne. This is the historical foundation of the tragedy of "Macbeth;" one of the finest productions of the illustrious Shakespeare.

Edward, to whom the monks give the name of saint and confessor, was the last of the Saxon line of English monarchs. He was the first that touched for the scrophula or king's evil: the opinion of his sanctity induced a belief that he could thus heal that incurable disorder; and his successors indulged the people in this delusion for nearly seven-hundred years.*

1066. Harold was a son of the famous earl Godwin, (who had acted as steward of the household, under Edward,) and, by his mother's side, grandson of Canute the Great. His sister Editha had been espoused by the late king. Before the death of Edward, he had so well prepared matters, that, notwithstanding the weakness of his title, (Edgar Atheling, grandson of Edmund Ironside, being the legitimate heir of the sovereignty,) he immediately stepped into the vacant throne· and the whole nation seemed joyfully to swear allegiance.

The new king, however, was not allowed to remain long in tranquillity. A formidable rival soon appeared. William, natural son of Robert, duke of Normandy, by the daughter of a tanner in Falaise, was very early established in that grandeur, from which he seemed to have been placed at so great a distance, by his birth; and the eminent qualities which he soon displayed, in the field and in the cabinet, rendered him one of the most powerful princes of his time. Founding his pretensions to the British throne upon a family connexion, and some negotiations which had

* This ridiculous practice was first discontinued by George the first.

taken place when at the court of Edward, William now prepared to win by his arms, that crown which Harold had gained by his address. Thus, to gratify ambition, the blood of thousands was to flow; and the peaceful cottage, the habitation of the industrious peasant, to become the abode of the afflicted widow and her helpless orphans.

The Normans were, at this time, the most renowned people in Europe; having been inured to the fatigues of military duty in successive campaigns, under captains of the greatest experience and abilities. The emperor, Henry the fourth, besides giving his vassals permission to embark in the intended expedition, promised his protection to the dutchy of Normandy, during the absence of the prince; and, thereby, enabled him to draw his whole force to the attack upon England. He was also supported by the approbation of the pope; who, to encourage the duke in his enterprise, sent him a consecrated banner, and a ring, in which was one of St. Peter's hairs—at least so it was denominated.

William had now assembled a fleet of three-thousand vessels, and selected, from his numerous supplies, an army of sixty-thousand men. During these mighty preparations, he had induced Harold's brother, Tosti, and the king of Norway, to make a descent upon England; which they accomplished. A sanguinary battle ensuing, near Stamford-bridge, in Yorkshire, they were both killed, and their armies entirely routed; but Harold's victory served greatly to reduce the strength of his own forces, and render them less capable of opposing the threatened invasion.

Without having experienced any opposition in his passage, the duke landed at Pevensey, in Sussex, and quietly disembarked his forces. A great battle took place at Hastings; and after a well contested action, in which all the energies of the respective commanders were displayed, and Harold and his two brothers, killed, the Normans were victorious.

14 Oct.

Although the loss sustained by the English, in this memorable engagement, was considerable, yet it might easily have been repaired, had the resources of the nation been skilfully concentrated, and vigorously applied. Unfortunately, the people, by their long subjection to the Danes, had lost all national pride and spirit; Edgar Atheling, the only heir of the Saxon line, was considered as unfit to govern them, even in times of tranquillity and order, therefore totally incapable of repairing their recent losses; and the

duke was allowed to complete his conquest, with little opposition, except from two powerful earls, Edwin and Morcar: who, in concert with Stigand, archbishop of Canterbury, having proclaimed Edgar, king, used their utmost endeavours to stop the progress of the invaders. Their exertions, however, were ineffectual, and they retired with their troops to their own provinces; after which, the people unanimously yielded to the victor. As soon as William had reached Berkhamstead, the primate made submission to him; and before he came within view of London, all the chief nobility, and Edgar Atheling himself, the newly elected king, (the only remaining prince of the royal blood,) went into his camp, and tendered him the crown; of which, with apparent reluctance, he accepted.

Thus, ended the Saxon monarchy in England, after continuing more than six-hundred years.

CHAPTER IX.

William the Conqueror, William Rufus, Henry the First, Stephen.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

1066—1087.

THE victory gained by William at Hastings, was over the person of Harold, and not over the rights of the English nation. Edward the Confessor having died without issue, the competitors for the crown were Edgar Atheling, Harold, and the duke of Normandy. Edgar had not capacity to sway the sceptre; and the succession of kings was not then decided by any invariable rule. Harold was a subject, and had no legal claim. William was related to Edward, and urged the wishes of this prince that he should succeed him. His victory, accordingly, gave him the title of a successor, and not a conqueror; and, that the quarrel was personal, appears from the circumstance that William offered to decide the dispute with Harold, by single combat.

What we call *purchase*, was, in the feudal law, called *conquest;* both denoting any means of acquiring an estate,

out of the common course of inheritance: and this is still the proper term in the law of Scotland; as it was amongst the Norman jurists; who styled the first purchaser (that is, him who first brought the estate into the family which at present owns it) the conqueror.

Westminster Abbey was the place appointed for the magnificent ceremony of the coronation; and the most considerable nobility, both English and Norman, attended on this important occasion. Aldred, archbishop of York by whom, rather than by the prelate of Canterbury, William chose to be consecrated, demanded of the English nobility, whether they would accept of William as their king. The bishop of Constance put the same question to the Normans. Both having agreed, by acclamations, the archbishop administered the usual coronation oath: by which, he bound himself to protect the church, to administer justice, and repress violence. After this, he anointed him, and placed the crown upon his head. At that instant, the Norman soldiers, who were stationed without, in order to guard the church, hearing the shouts within, and fearing that the English were committing violence on their prince, assaulted the populace, and set fire to the neighbouring houses. The alarm was conveyed to the nobility who surrounded the king; and it was with difficulty that he himself could appease the tumult.

Besides the usual coronation oath, William swore that he would govern by the laws of the Confessor; and, for this purpose, he summoned twelve Englishmen from every county, to ascertain what these laws were; because the greater part of them had not been written, but were the ancient customs of the realm. He also established justices of the peace. His own army, in particular, was governed with severe discipline; and the greatest care was taken to curb the insolence of recent victory. Yet, amidst this apparent friendship for his new subjects, he took care to place all power in the hands of the Normans, and still keep possession of the sword, to which he was indebted for his crown.

1067. Anxious to revisit his native country, he now departed for Normandy; and, that the kingdom might, in his absence, be exposed to less danger, he carried with him Edgar Atheling and the principal nobility of England; who served both to increase the splendour of his court, and remain as hostages for the fidelity of their countrymen But the rapacity of the Normans, which had been restrained by the rigour of their sovereign; and the tend-

ency to revolt, which had been prevented by his vigilance; soon began to appear: conspiracies were formed, hostilities commenced in many places, and every thing menaced a revolution, as sudden as that which had placed William on the throne.

Upon the first intelligence of these commotions, he hastened back to England, disconcerted all the plans of the confederates, confiscated their estates, and assigned them to his Norman captains.

This measure, whilst it gratified his rapacious followers, increased the number of his enemies. His attention was soon required by an insurrection in the north. At the head of this patriotic struggle, were Edwin and Morcar; who had stipulated for aid, from Blethin, prince of North Wales, Malcolm, king of Scotland, and Sweyn, king of Denmark. But William, knowing the importance of celerity, advanced by forced marches, reached York before his enemies were prepared for resistance, or were joined by any of the foreign succours, except a small body from Wales, and obliged the two earls to make an unconditional surrender.

The following year, he was again disturbed. An invasion was made by Godwin, Edmund, and Magnus; three sons of Harold; who, after the defeat at Hastings, had sought refuge in Ireland. Having met with a kind reception from Dermot, and other princes of that country, they prepared an expedition against England, and landed in Devonshire. But Brian, son of the count of Brittany, was here ready to oppose them. Several actions ensued, in which the invaders were unsuccessful; and they were obliged, after great loss, to return into Ireland.

1070. It was at this period, that William introduced into England the feudal system. Finding himself entirely master of the English people, he determined to reduce them to a condition, in which they could no longer be formidable to his government. He divided nearly all the lands of the kingdom into baronies, and conferred them (with the reservation of stated services and payments) on the most considerable of his adventurers. These great barons shared the principal part of their lands with other foreigners, who were called knights, or vassals; and who paid their lords the same duty and submission, in peace and in war, which the lords themselves owed to their sovereign. The whole country contained about seven hundred chief tenants, and sixty thousand knights. But, as none of the English were admitted into the first rank, the few who

retained their landed property, were glad to be received into the second, and live under the protection of some powerful Norman. It was a fixed maxim, in this reign, that no one born in the island should ever be advanced to any dignity—civil, military, or ecclesiastical; and the natives were universally reduced to such a state of poverty and meanness, that the English name became a term of reproach.

But William reserved a very ample revenue for the crown, and retained for himself upwards of fourteen-hundred manors; which paid him rent, either in money, or in corn, cattle, and the usual produce of the land: and, not contented with the large forests, which the former kings possessed, in all parts of England, he resolved to make a new forest, near Winchester, the usual place of his residence; and, for this purpose, he laid waste the country in Hampshire, for an extent of thirty miles, expelled the inhabitants from their houses, seized their property, even demolished churches and convents, and made the sufferers not the smallest compensation. The killing of a deer or a boar, was punished with the loss of the delinquent's eyes; at a time, when the killing of a man could be atoned for by paying a moderate fine.

No sooner was the Norman prince established on the throne, than the pope, with the concurrence of William, despatched into England, the bishop of Sion, as his legate; who was the first prelate that had ever appeared in that character in the kingdom. The bishops, under frivolous charges of irregularity, were, soon afterwards, by his dictation, deprived of their respective sees. The bishop of Worcester was the only English prelate who remained in possession of his dignity. It is said, however, that he, also, was removed; but, refusing to deliver his pastoral staff and ring, to any except the person from whom he had first received it, he went immediately (so it is related by the monkish historians) to Edward the Confessor's tomb, and struck the staff so deeply into the stone, that no one except himself, could pull it out; upon which, he was allowed to resume his office.

In addition to his other innovations, this monarch entertained even the difficult project of abolishing the English language; and, for that purpose, ordered, that, in all schools, the youth should be instructed in the French tongue. The pleadings in the supreme courts were in French: the laws were written in that idiom: no other language was used at court: it became fashionable in all the higher circles; a

policy, to which is chiefly to be attributed, the mixture of French, at present to be found in the English language.

1081. After quelling an insurrection of the barons in England, and a revolt of his son Robert in Normandy, William had leisure to begin and finish a survey of all the lands in the kingdom. He appointed commissioners to ascertain the quantity and the various qualities of land in each district, with the names of the proprietors; and, in many counties, the number and specification of the inhabitants: which great undertaking was completed in six years; and the particulars were noted in what is called Domesday-Book. This monument, the most valuable piece of antiquity possessed by any nation, is still preserved in the Exchequer in London.*

Having reached the sixty-third year of his age, William died on the Continent, at the monastery of St. Gervais, in consequence of a hurt received when riding; in the twenty-first year after the conquest of England, and the fifty-fourth of his reign over Normandy. He left three sons: Robert, William, and Henry.

The Normans introduced into England the use of surnames.

The best historian of this age, was Ingulphus, abbot of Croyland; who wrote a history of his abbey, interspersed with much general information.

WILLIAM RUFUS.

1087—1100.

William, surnamed Rufus, from the colour of his hair, which was of a reddish hue, though the second son, ascended the throne by the will of his father; Robert, the eldest, having succeeded to the dutchy of Normandy. The appointment, however, caused considerable discontent, amongst the Norman barons; who generally possessed large estates both in England and their own country. They foresaw, that it would be impossible for them long to preserve their allegiance to two masters; and that they must, ultimately, resign either their ancient property, or their new

* The cities appear, by Domesday-book, to have been little more, in extent, than villages. York, itself, though, at that period, the second city in England, contained only 1418 houses; Norwich, 738, Exeter, 315; Ipswich, 538; Northampton, 60; Hertford, 146; Canterbury, 262; Bath, 64; Southampton, 84; Warwick, 113.

acquisitions. A comparison, also, of the personal qualities of the two brothers, led them to give a preference to the elder. The duke was brave, sincere, and generous; and, even his predominant defect, extreme indolence, was not disagreeable to those haughty soldiers, who were fond of independence, and submitted with reluctance to a rigorous administration in their sovereign. The king, though equally brave, was violent, haughty, and tyrannical. He seemed disposed to govern, more by the fear, than by the love, of his people. An insurrection ensued: but William, by the vigorous measures which he adopted, soon reduced the disaffected to obedience, banished the promoters of this sedition, and divided their estates amongst the barons who had remained faithful.

Actuated by a criminal ambition, he now thought of wresting from his brother the dutchy of Normandy; and appeared there with a formidable army. An accommodation, however, took place. It was agreed, that William should be put in possession of Eu, the town of Aumale, and other places: but, in return, he promised to assist his brother in subduing Maine, which had rebelled; and to restore the barons to their forfeited estates in England

A dispute having arisen between Henry, on the one side, and Robert and William, on the other, Henry retired into a strong fortress on the coast of Normandy; in which, he was attacked by the two brothers. When nearly reduced by a scarcity of water, Robert, hearing of his distress, granted him leave to supply himself, and also sent him some pipes of wine, for his own table. Being reproved by William for this ill-timed generosity, he replied: "What! shall I suffer my brother to die of thirst? Where, shall we find another, when he is gone?" The king, also, performed an act of generosity, which was less suitable to his character. Riding out one day, alone, to take a survey of the fortress, he was attacked by two soldiers, and dismounted. One of these drew his sword, in order to despatch him; when, William exclaimed: "Hold, knave! I am the king of England." The soldier suspended his blow; and, having respectfully raised the king from the ground, received a handsome reward, and was taken into his service.

Prince Henry, being soon after obliged to capitulate, wandered about, for some time, in great poverty.

1096. This period is memorable for the commencement of the Crusades, which now engrossed the attention of Europe; and may be ranked as the most re-

markable monument of human folly, that ever was raised by superstition. The appellation of Crusaders was given to the deluded votaries of this mad enthusiasm, from the figure of a cross affixed by each to his right shoulder. All orders of men deemed the crusades the only road to Heaven. The greatest criminals were forward in a service, which they regarded as a propitiation for every crime Even women, concealing their sex under the disguise of armour, attended the camp of these warriors; who sought to wrest from the Mahometans, the city of Jerusalem, or breathe their last in sight of that place where their Saviour had died. How much better might they have fulfilled the injunctions of their sacred Master, by practising, at home, the duties of morality and peace!

Impelled by the general frenzy, the king's brother, Robert, had early enlisted in the crusade. Being, however, in want of money, he mortgaged his dominions to the king of England; and William was, accordingly, put in possession of Normandy and Maine. But he did not many years survive this continental acquisition. In the thirteenth year of his reign, and fortieth of his age, when engaged in his favourite amusement of hunting, in the New Forest, in Hampshire, a French gentleman, named Walter Tyrel, having aimed at a stag which suddenly started before him, his arrow, glancing from a tree, struck the king in the breast, and instantly killed him. His body was buried by the country-people, without any pomp or ceremony, at Winchester. His courtiers neglected to perform the last duties, to a monarch who was so little beloved. They were too much occupied in the more profitable employment of choosing his successor, to allow their attending the funeral of a dead sovereign.

A fashion prevailed, in this age, in England, and throughout Europe, amongst both men and women, to wear shoes of enormous length, to draw the toe to a sharp point, and affix the figure of a bird's bill, or a similar ornament, which was turned upwards, and was often sustained by gold or silver chains, tied to the knee. The clergy declaimed, with great vehemence, against this fashion; which, they said, was an attempt to bely the Scripture, where it is affirmed, that no man can add a cubit to his stature. They even assembled synods, who condemned it. But, though the clergy, at that time, could overturn thrones, and had authority sufficient to send a million of men on the crusades, they could never prevail against these long-pointed shoes

The monuments which remain in England of this prince, are Westminster Hall, and London Bridge; both of which were built by his directions. The Tower, also, was originally founded by him: but the present superstructure of that fortress was erected at the close of the fourteenth century, by Richard II.

HENRY THE FIRST.

1100—1135.

The throne was immediately occupied by Henry, the youngest son of the Conqueror, and the younger brother of the late king. Robert was absent at Jerusalem; where, he distinguished himself, by his extraordinary courage, as well as by that affable disposition and unbounded generosity, which qualify a prince to shine in a military profession.

As Henry easily foresaw, that a crown, usurped against all rules of justice, would sit very unsteadily on his head, he resolved, by fair appearances, to gain the affection of his subjects. He voluntarily made a charter, which was calculated to remove many grievous oppressions under which the people had long laboured. In this instrument, he promised, that upon the death of any earl, baron, or military tenant, his heir should be admitted to the possession of his estate, on paying a just and reasonable sum to the crown. He also remitted the wardship of minors, and the right of giving any heiress in marriage, without the advice of all the barons; restored the Anglo-Saxon laws, as confirmed in a charter by Edward the Confessor, (the same that the first William had sworn to observe) and made several other concessions, favourable to the property and liberty of the subject. But, when he had gained his purpose, he never once thought, during his whole reign, of observing a single article of it.

Robert, who, shortly after his brother's death, had returned to Normandy, took possession of that dutchy; and commenced preparations to enable him to gain the English throne, of which, in his absence, he had been deprived. He landed with his troops at Portsmouth; but an accommodation ensued. It was agreed, that Robert should resign his claim to England, in consideration of an annual pension; and, that if either of the princes died without issue, the other should succeed to his dominions.

1106. Henry was the first to infringe the treaty. He made an attack on Normandy; in the conquest of which he succeeded, after a severe battle at Tenchebray; where, Robert was made prisoner. This unfortunate prince was detained in custody during the remainder of his life, which was twenty-eight years, in the castle of Cardiff, in Glamorganshire. Thus, are the bonds of kindred affection rent asunder, by the furious impulse of a detestable ambition. Edgar Atheling, also, who had accompanied Robert to Jerusalem, was amongst the prisoners taken, by the king, at Tenchebray. He gave him his liberty, and settled a small pension on him; with which, having retired, he lived to an advanced age in England, totally neglected and forgotten; such was the indifference with which he was viewed, from his want of talent.

Henry died suddenly in Normandy, in the sixty-seventh year of his age, and thirty-fifth of his reign; leaving his daughter, the empress Matilda, heiress of his dominions. This prince, in point of mental attainments, and abilities in general, was one of the most accomplished that ever filled the British throne; and by his great progress in literature, he acquired the name of Beau-clerc, or the scholar. He made canals for joining navigable rivers, and granted a charter to London; which seems to have been the first step towards rendering that city a corporation.

During his whole reign, the nation was disturbed by violent contentions with the court of Rome. A synod, convened at Westminster, passed a vote, prohibiting the laity from wearing long hair. The aversion of the clergy to this mode, was not confined to England. When the king went over into Normandy, before he had conquered that province, the bishop of Seez, in a formal harangue, earnestly besought him to redress the manifold disorders under which the government laboured, and to oblige the people to cut their hair in a decent form. Henry, though he would not resign his prerogatives to the church, was very willing to part with his hair: he cut it in the required form, and obliged all the courtiers to imitate his example.

STEPHEN.

1135—1154.

The irregular manner in which Henry had acquired the crown, might have taught that prince how little regard would be shown to the injunctions of a will; and the casuistry of the age, how little respect to the oaths of fealty, sworn, by the barons, both of Normandy and England, to Matilda. Indeed, no nation of Europe had ever seen a crown on the head of a female; and Spain was then the only country that had ever had a king who claimed in a female right. His nephew, Stephen of Blois, maternal grandson of the Conqueror, had, by the friendship of the late king, gained, in England, great riches, honours, and preferments; and no sooner had Henry expired, than he hastened over from the Continent, and, by the influence of his wealth and dignities, got possession of the throne.

But Stephen, though he now wielded a sceptre, did not enjoy it in tranquillity. He felt a large share of those inquietudes, with which Providence is pleased, abundantly, to visit the palaces of kings. The barons, in return for their submission, had exacted most exorbitant demands; equally destructive of the royal authority, and the peace of the community. Many of these required the right of fortifying their castles, and increasing their defences; so that all England was immediately filled with those fortresses, which they garrisoned with their vassals, or with licentious soldiers that flocked to them from every quarter.

Robert, earl of Gloucester, natural son of the late king, was a man of honour and ability, and much attached to the interests of Matilda. From this nobleman, Stephen had much to fear. Having arranged the project of an insurrection, he retired to the Continent, sent the king a defiance, solemnly renounced his allegiance, and upbraided him with a breach of the conditions which had been annexed to his oath of fealty. Her uncle, David, king of Scotland, took the field in defence of Matilda's title; and, penetrating into Yorkshire, committed most barbarous devastations. The fury of his massacre and ravages enraged the northern nobility, who might, otherwise, have been inclined to join him; and the earl of Albermarle, William Percy, Robert de Brus, and other powerful barons, assembled an army, with which they encamped at North-Aller-

ton; where a great engagement took place, in which the king of Scots was routed, and very narrowly escaped falling into the hands of his enemies.

1139. Matilda, accompanied by the earl of Gloucester, now landed in England, and fixed her residence at Arundel Castle; where she was joined by many of the barons, with their numerous vassals. An engagement took place at Lincoln; in which, Stephen was made prisoner. Matilda was shortly after crowned at Winchester; and, though she experienced great opposition from the citizens of London, yet, by the aid of the clergy, whose favours had been gained by concessions, she brought them to submit.

But, another revolution shortly followed. By a concurrence of events, which it would be tedious to enumerate, and which, if related, would be devoid of interest, Stephen was released from prison, and Matilda was under the necessity of retiring from the kingdom. Although, however, the king had gained his liberty, he can scarcely be said, at this time, to have reascended the throne. He had to contend, not only with powerful opposition from many of the nobles, but also with the anathemas of the pope.

Seizing the favourable opportunity now afforded, prince Henry, son of Matilda, made an invasion; and, having gained some advantages over Stephen, compelled him to listen to an accommodation. It was agreed, that Stephen should possess the crown during his life, and that Henry should succeed him. The death of the king, which happened in the next year, prevented all those quarrels and jealousies which were likely to ensue in so delicate a situation; as it is not very probable, that the young prince would have patiently waited for an event, which he himself might not survive.

The historians of this period, were William of Malmsbury, and Peter of Blois. On the authority of the latter, it appears, that London then contained only forty-thousand inhabitants. The Saxon language now assumed in England, a form, in which may plainly be discovered the beginning of the present English.

CHAPTER X.

CONQUEST OF IRELAND.

Henry the second, Richard the first, John, Henry the third, Edward the first, Edward the second, Edward the third, Richard the second.

HENRY THE SECOND

1154—1189.

THIS prince was about twenty-one years of age when he ascended the British throne. In his person, the families of the Saxon and Norman monarchs were united; his mother being the grand niece of Edgar Atheling, and a lineal descendant of Edmund Ironside. He was master, in right of his father, the earl of Anjou Plantagenet, of Touraine, Anjou, and Maine: he inherited from his mother Matilda, Normandy; obtained by his wife, Perigord, Poictou, Guienne, Xaintogne, Auvergne, Limousin, and Angoumois; and, soon after, annexed Brittany to his other states. These provinces composed above a third of the whole French monarchy; and were much superior, in extent and resources, to those territories which were under the immediate jurisdiction of the king of France. Henry was the greatest prince of his time, for wisdom, virtue, and political ability; and the most powerful, in extent of dominion, that had ever worn the crown of England. His character, in private, as well as in public life, is almost without blemish. He was of a middle stature—strong, and well proportioned: his countenance was lively and engaging; his conversation, affable and entertaining; his elocution, easy, persuasive, and always at command. He loved peace, but possessed both bravery and conduct in war.

As the king, and all the English barons, were of French extraction, the manners of the latter gradually acquired the ascendance. All foreign improvements, therefore, such as they were, in literature and politeness, in laws and in arts, seem then, in a great measure, transplanted into England; and this country soon rivaled her continental neighbours, in the fashionable accomplishments of the age.

A dispute having arisen respecting the occupation of Nantz, Henry, lest Louis, the French king, should interpose against him in the controversy, paid that monarch a visit; and pleased him so much by his deportment, that an alliance was contracted. They agreed, that young Henry, heir of the British throne, should be affianced to Margaret of France; though the former was only five years of age, and the latter was yet in her cradle.

1162. The usurpations of the clergy, which had, heretofore, been gradual, were now so rapid and alarming, that it seemed necessary to determine, whether the king or the ecclesiastics, particularly the archbishop of Canterbury, should have the political ascendency. The high spirit of Henry, was not likely to pay a tame submission to their encroachments. The most remarkable personage in these contentions, was the celebrated Thomas a Becket; the first man of English pedigree, who, since the Norman Conquest, had risen to any considerable station; and who, by natural ability, improved by experience; and by intrigue and affected austerity; raised himself, from an humble station, to the exalted dignity of chancellor of the kingdom, prime minister, and, ultimately, to that of archbishop of Canterbury. In addition to these great employments, he received also the income of two extensive baronies; and, to complete his grandeur, was intrusted with the education of the king's eldest son. The pomp of his retinue, the luxury of his table, and the munificence of his presents, corresponded to these great preferments; or, rather, exceeded any thing which England had ever, before, witnessed, in any subject. His historian and secretary, Fitz-Stephen, mentions, amongst other particulars, that his apartments were every day, in winter, covered with clean straw or hay; and, in summer, with green rushes or boughs: lest the gentlemen who paid their court to him, and who could not, by reason of their great number, find a place at table should soil their fine clothes by sitting on a dirty floor!—That, however, in those days, when carpets were not used even in the royal palace, was considered as effeminate refinement. He employed himself, at leisure hours, in hunting, hawking, and gaming; and maintained, during forty days, in one of the king's wars in Normandy, twelve-hundred knights and four-thousand of their train.

Henry, himself, partook of his entertainments An amusing instance of their familiarity is mentioned; which forcibly displays the manners of that age. One day, as th

king and Becket were riding in the str ts of London, they observed a beggar, who was shivering ith cold: "Would it not be very praiseworthy," said the king, "to give that poor man a warm coat, in this severe weather?" "It would, surely," replied the chancellor; "and you do well, sir, in thinking of so good an action." "Then he shall have one presently," replied the king; and, seizing the skirts of Becket's coat, he began to pull it violently. Becket defended himself for some time; and both had nearly fallen off their horses, when the chancellor, after a vehement struggle, let go his coat; which the king gave to the beggar: who, being ignorant of their persons, was not a little surprised at the present.

At this time, however, Becket had not attained the summit of his elevation. But, when afterwards he received from Henry the exalted honours of the see of Canterbury which rendered him, for life, the second person in the kingdom, he totally altered his demeanour, and endeavoured to retrieve that character of sanctity, which his former ostentation had impaired. He immediately resigned all his civil employments; intimating, that, thenceforth, he must be solely occupied in the exercise of his religious functions. Although he still retained, in his retinue and attendants, his accustomed pomp and lustre, which were useful to strike the vulgar, yet, in his own person, he affected the most rigid mortification. He wore sackcloth next his skin; his usual diet was bread; his drink, water; which he had rendered unpalatable by the mixture of unsavoury herbs: he tore his back by the frequent scourgings which he inflicted on it; and daily, on his knees, washed the feet of thirteen beggars, whom he afterwards dismissed with presents.

These austerities, could not, however, deceive men of penetration. They easily foresaw, that he meditated some great design; and that his ambition had directed him towards a new and more dangerous experiment.

The ecclesiastics, in that age, had renounced all subordination to the magistrates: they openly pretended to an exemption, in criminal accusations, from a trial before courts of justice, and were gradually introducing a similar exemption in civil causes; and, as the clergy had extremely multiplied in England, and many of them were, consequently, of very low characters, murders, and robberies, and other crimes of the deepest die, were daily committed by them, with impunity

The most inquisitive reader would be wearied by a recital of the successive encroachments of the primate, and the endeavours of the sovereign to resist their effects. Henry, seizing a favourable opportunity, resolved to determine, at once, the increasing controversies between the civil and the ecclesiastical jurisdiction. He therefore summoned an assembly of all the prelates in the kingdom; and put to them this plain and decisive question: Whether they were willing to submit to the ancient laws and customs of England? The bishops unanimously replied, That they were willing, *saving their own order.*

This evasion served only to inflame the king's resentment. He was not to be diverted from his purpose. In the following year, he convened, at Clarendon, a general council of the nobility and prelates; to whom he submitted the important decision of the present alarming differences. The barons having been gained to the king's party, the bishops became overawed; and a body of laws, called the Constitu-
1164. tions of Clarendon, were agreed to, without opposition. It was enacted, that clergymen accused of any crime should be tried by the civil power: that laymen should not be indicted in spiritual courts, except by legal and reputable witnesses: that the bishops, and other spiritual dignitaries, should be regarded as barons of the realm, and be bound to assist at trials, and attend the king in his great councils; and that goods forfeited to the king should not be protected in churches or church yards.

Although Becket himself subscribed to these articles, it does not appear, that he, in the least degree, relaxed from his usual struggles in favour of the clerical supremacy. Henry and the primate were almost perpetually at variance; he was at length banished from the kingdom; and, although, after a compromise had been effected, he was allowed to return, yet, still, the controversy was repeated. He filled all places with exclamations against the violence which he had suffered, excommunicated the king's ministers, by name, and every one that obeyed the constitutions of Clarendon; absolved all persons from the oaths which they had taken to observe them; and even told Henry that kings reign solely by the authority of the church.

1170 The king, when on the continent, being one day vehemently agitated, burst forth into an exclamation against his servants; whose want of zeal, he said, had left him so long exposed to the enterprises of that ungrateful and imperious prelate. Four officers of his household,

taking these passionate expressions as a hint for Becket's death, swore to revenge their prince's quarrel, and secretly withdrew from court The king, apprehensive of their design, despatched after them a messenger; charging them to attempt nothing against the person of the primate. But these orders arrived too late. Becket had been assassinated in the cathedral church of Canterbury. In this manner, did his rashly officious friends, seek a remedy for evil, in the commission of one of the most horrid crimes of which man can be guilty; and plunge, into the severest affliction, him, whose troubles they had sought to alleviate.

Though Henry had acquitted his own conscience from desiring the assassination of Becket, he was extremely alarmed, lest he might incur the anathemas of the court of Rome. The Thursday before Easter was now approaching, when it is customary for the pope to denounce annual curses against all his enemies; and it was expected that Henry would be solemnly comprehended amongst the number: but an ambassador, sent hastily forward, found means to appease the pontiff, and artfully to elude the blow.

Two years after his death, Becket was sainted by the pope, his body was removed to a magnificent shrine, enriched with presents from all parts of Christendom; and, in one year, above a hundred-thousand pilgrims arrived at Canterbury, and paid devotions at his tomb.

We shall now proceed to the most important, but not the most pleasing, event, in the history of this reign—the invasion and subjection of Ireland.

Though it is foreign to the plan of the present work, to devote an equal degree of attention to Irish affairs, as to those of England, yet, viewing as we do, the greatness of the attainment to the British crown, it seems proper to give at least a cursory sketch, of the ancient state of so celebrated an island.

When we examine the remote histories of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and find names and facts given with unhesitating confidence, and apparent chronological accuracy, it seems, at first sight, an unreasonable degree of scepticism, to withhold our assent, or question their authenticity; however, a minuter inquiry, evinces them to be, in general, but specious delusions—the inventions of the human mind. Ireland, unquestionably, at a very early period, contained extensive colleges for the reception of literary students; but, until after the general revival of letters, if we except her music, which was then, as it is now, the

most delightful in the world, she sent forth no illuminating beams of scientific knowledge, or of elegance. Greece and Italy, though possessed, in remote ages, of few public seminaries of learning, have transmitted, even through the gloomy centuries of barbarism, those immortal productions, which excite the highest admiration, and challenge the ablest exertions, of our modern schools. The language of the Irish, it may be said, is no longer a collegiate study. The Greek and Latin, though neither is, at this time, the language of a nation, live, from age to age, in the splendid pages which they have adorned. Had those crowded academies of Ireland produced within their walls a Homer or a Virgil, an Herodotus or a Livy, the Iberno-Celtic tongue would not now be confined to the illiterate vulgar.

The earliest authentic reference to this island, is by the ancient geographer, Strabo. He says, that the position of Ireland, and its distance from the coast of Gaul, were inserted in the papers of Eratosthenes, librarian of the second Ptolemy, king of Egypt. This prince flourished about two-hundred-and-fifty years before the Christian æra. Pliny, also, refers to a map of Ireland, which was placed in a portico at Rome, amongst other geographical documents collected under the superintendence of Julius Cæsar. The names of Iri, Eri, Erin, with their variations, were anciently given to this island. Cæsar is, we believe, the first Roman writer who mentions it. He calls it Hibernia; probably from its supposed coldness; *hibernus*, in Latin, signifying *winterly*.

As Britain was first peopled from Gaul, so was Ireland, most probably, from Britain. The inhabitants of all these countries seem to have been so many tribes of the Celtæ, who derive their origin from an antiquity far beyond the records of any history or tradition. The ancient language of Ireland was what is now called the Gaelic: the same, excepting the changes produced by time, that is still used by at least three-fourths of the lower classes in that country. In many parts of Scotland, Wales, and the Isle of Man, dialects of this tongue are still very common; all bearing so near an affinity, that the people of one can converse intelligibly with those of another.

1172. At this period, besides many small tribes, there were in the island five principal sovereignties; Munster, Leinster, Meath, Ulster, and Connaught. Roderick O'Connor, king of Connaught, was advanced to the dignity of presiding in their councils, and of leading their armies

against a foreign enemy; but his government, ill obeyed, even within his own territory, was not capable of uniting the people in measures for their general defence. The following circumstance seems to have hastened the attempts of the British king upon this island, which had been previously designed by himself, and sanctioned by the Roman pontiff. Dermot M'Murrough, sovereign of Leinster, an odious tyrant, had formed a design on Omach wife of Ororic, king of Meath: Ororic, for better security during his absence in a distant part of his dominions, had placed his queen in an island surrounded by a bog: but Dermot, seizing the opportunity, invaded the place, and carried off the princess. This immoral and ungenerous act, led to his expulsion from the country. He had then recourse to Henry; and proposed that if he assisted him in recovering his kingdom, he would hold it in vassalage of the crown of England. Christianity had been carried to Ireland by missions from the ancient Britains; but the Irish followed the doctrines of their first teachers, and had never acknowledged subjection to the Roman see. Adrian the third, therefore, in the year 1156, issued a bull in favour of Henry; in which, after premising that this prince had always been anxious to enlarge the church of God, on earth, and to increase the number of his saints in Heaven, he exhorts him to invade Ireland, to extirpate the vice and wickedness of the natives, and oblige them to pay, yearly, from every house, a penny to the see of Rome.

The first hostile party of the British was under the orders of Robert Fitz-Stephen; who landed near Wexford. Maurice de Prendergast, Fitzgerald, Raymond, and the earl of Strigul, (surnamed Strongbow,) successively followed; each with a party under his command. The latter, the most renowned of all, landed at Waterford; which he immediately subdued. He then proceeded to Dublin; which he carried by assault. Henry himself soon arrived, with a few hundred men; not so much to conquer a disputed territory, as to take possession of a subjected kingdom. Amongst the British adventurers, he distributed the lands, which belonged to those leaders who had offended him by their opposition; and, after a short stay, returned to England; leaving most of the Irish chieftains undisturbed in their dominions.

The Irish, at that time, were undisciplined, and almost entirely without armour; a mode of personal defence used by their invaders: to which causes, and their want of union,

may be attributed the easy victory over a people, inferior to none in point of natural bravery and strength.

Henry died in the fifty-eighth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign His life was shortened by the ungrateful conduct of his own children, Henry, Richard, and John; who, disgracefully aiming to deprive their indulgent father of his dominions, embittered his declining years with corroding anguish. Two, only, of his sons survived him: Richard, who succeeded to the throne; and John, who did not inherit any territory; and was thence called Lacland.

The most industrious writer of this reign was Hovedon.

RICHARD THE FIRST.

1189—1199.

By his conduct, when invested with the regal dignity, Richard endeavoured to atone for his undutiful behaviour to his father. Those who had assisted in his rebellion, instead of meeting with the honour and confidence which they had expected, were, on all occasions, hated and despised; but, the faithful ministers of Henry, were received with open arms.

The events of this reign are unimportant, at the present day. Our business is, to give a faithful detail only of those transactions that have a tendency to elucidate effects which have remained permanent; not to burthen our pages with those that should rather be forgotten than remembered.

The character of Richard displays a strange mixture of vice and virtue. He seemed calculated rather to dazzle mankind by the splendour of his enterprises, than to promote the happiness of his people by a well regulated government. No man, even in that romantic age, carried personal courage to a greater height. It was this quality which gained him the appellation of *Cœur de Lion*, the lion-hearted. Shortly after ascending the throne, he joined in a crusade to Palestine; where he remained nearly three years; shining in every action. The most memorable battle which then occurred, was fought by the Christians on the one side, and Saladin, the renowned emperor of the Saracens, on the other; who, by the heroic behaviour of Richard, received a signal overthrow. In his return home, the king was treacherously detained by Leopold, duke of Austria; and for a sum of money, assigned to the emperor Henry the sixth; by whom he was carried into the heart of

Germany, and loaded with irons, until ransomed by his country. Nor was that the only cause of his unhappiness. Prince John, during the captivity of his brother, made an attempt to gain the throne; thus, renewing the disgraceful conduct, which had brought his father to the grave.

Richard, when attacking the castle of Chalus, near Limoges, received a mortal wound, in the tenth year of his reign, and the forty-second of his age.

Coats of arms were not introduced into seals, nor indeed into any other use, until about the reign of Richard; who brought them from the Holy Land, where they were first invented, and painted on the shields of the knights, to distinguish the variety of persons, of every Christian nation, who resorted thither, and could not, when clad in complete steel, be otherwise identified.

This prince established in England a uniformity in weights and measures: a useful institution; with which, the mercenary disposition of his successor induced him to dispense, for money.

JOHN.

1199—1216.

The late king, who died without children, previous to his departure for the East, had declared his nephew, Arthur, duke of Brittany, son of his deceased elder brother Geoffrey, his successor. But John did not acquiesce in this; and Richard, by his last will, appointed him heir to all his dominions; probably, because he thought that Arthur, then but twelve years of age, was incapable of establishing his claim against the faction of his uncle.

Philip, king of France, desiring an opportunity to embarrass John, and disunite his dominions, embraced the cause of the young duke, and brought him to Paris, to be educated with his own son.

A war with France shortly after ensued; which was at length concluded by the mutual adjustment of disputed claims; and, to render the union more durable, John gave his niece in marriage to Prince Louis, Philip's eldest son. Nine barons of the king of England, and as many of the king of France, were guarantees of this treaty; all of whom swore, that if their sovereign violated any article which it contained, they would declare against him, and embrace the cause of the injured monarch.

Now secure, as he imagined, on the side of France, John, though his queen was still alive, indulged his passion for Isabella, the daughter of Aymar, count of Angouleme; a lady, who had been contracted to the count De la Marche, and was already delivered into his hands; but, by reason of her tender years, the marriage had not been consummated. Having procured a divorce from his own wife, John espoused Isabella; regardless both of the menaces of the pope, and the resentment of the count. But the latter soon found means to punish his atrocious rival. Taking advantage of the general discontent which prevailed against John, the enraged husband excited commotions in Poictou and Normandy. The king then summoned all the barons of England, and required them to assist him on the continent. But he found that he possessed as little authority, there, as in his transmarine dominions. They unanimously replied, that they would not attend on this expedition, unless he would promise to restore and preserve their privileges—the first symptom of a regular combination, and plan of liberty, amongst those noblemen. Affairs, however, were not yet fully ripe for the projected revolution. John, by threatening them, dissolved the association, induced many to follow him into Normandy, and compelled those who remained behind, to pay for the indulgence.

He was, for a while, equally successful against the refractory barons on the continent. But, elated by his superiority, he advanced claims, which gave universal alarm to his vassals, and diffused, still wider, the general discontent. As the jurisprudence in those times, generally required that the causes in the lords' court should be decided by duel, he carried with him a number of bravos; whom he retained as champions, to fight with his barons in any controversy that he might raise against them. The count De la Marche, and other noblemen, regarded this proceeding as an insult, as well as an injury; and declared that they would never draw their swords against men so inferior in quality. The barons having appealed to Philip, their superior lord, that prince espoused their cause; and a new and powerful ally soon appeared, to encourage them in the completion of their designs against the British king.

The young duke of Brittany, aware of the dangerous character of his uncle, determined to seek both his security and advancement by a union with Philip and the barons. The allies, for a while, were invariably successful. In answer to every proposal which the king of England made

for peace, Philip still insisted, that he should resign all his continental dominions to his nephew. But an event happened which seemed to turn the scale in favour of John. Whilst the duke of Brittany was besieging the town of Mirabel, in Poictou, his camp was suddenly attacked; and he himself, together with La Marche, and the most considerable of the revolted barons, were made prisoners, and carried in triumph into Normandy. Philip, who then invested a city in that dutchy, raised the siege, and retired on his approach; and John, sensible from the spirited disposition of young Arthur, that he might prove a dangerous enemy, if he should regain his liberty, murdered him with his own hands; and, fastening a stone to the dead body, threw it into the Seine!

All Europe was struck with horror at this inhuman deed. From that moment, the king, detested by his subjects, retained a very precarious authority, over both the people and the barons. Philip, as his superior lord, summoned him to stand a trial; and, on his non-appearance, passed sentence, with the concurrence of the peers, declaring him guilty of felony, and adjudging him to forfeit all the provinces which he held in vassalage of the French crown. These, Philip entered with a numerous army; and conquered Anjou, Touraine, Maine, and Poictou; and reunited to the crown of France the whole province of Normandy, two-hundred-and-ninety-four years after it had been ceded, by Charles the Simple, to Rollo, the Dane, the ancestor of William.

Despised by his army, attacked on all sides by his enemies, expelled from every province in France, John retreated into England, with infamy and dishonour.

That he might cover the disgrace of his own conduct, he exclaimed loudly against his barons; who, he said, had deserted his standard in Normandy; and, as a punishment for this offence, he extorted from them a seventh part of all their moveable estate. Soon after, he forced them to grant him a tax for another expedition. But he did not attempt to enter upon the service for which it was exacted. After many similar preparations, which ended in the same manner, he carried his hostile measures a step further; and actually ventured abroad with an army. Terrified, however, by the approach of Philip, he made proposals for peace, and fixed a place of interview with his enemy. But, instead of keeping this engagement, he secretly withdrew his

forces, embarked at Rochelle, and returned to England, loaded with additional disgrace.

In an age when personal valour was regarded as the chief accomplishment, such conduct must have been exposed to extreme contempt. But the government exercised by the Norman princes, had wound up the royal power to so high a pitch, that even still further degradation of the regal dignity seemed necessary, to impel the barons to insurrection.

A controversy relating to an ecclesiastical election, completed that odium, which, whilst it debased the sovereign, contributed to enlarge the liberties of the subject. The pope, without a previous writ from the king, had caused Langton to be chosen archbishop of Canterbury; but, aware that this usurpation would be highly resented by the court of England, he despatched to John four gold rings, accompanied by this flattering epistle. "I beg, my son, that you will consider seriously the form of these rings; their number, their matter, and their colour. Their form, being round, is typical of Eternity, which has neither beginning nor end; and you ought, thence, to learn the duty of aspiring from earthly objects, to heavenly—from things temporal, to things eternal. The number four, being a square, denotes Steadiness of Mind; not to be subverted by either adversity or prosperity; fixed, for ever, on the firm basis of the four cardinal virtues. Gold, which is the matter, being the most precious of metals, signifies Wisdom; which is the most valuable of all accomplishments, and justly preferred by Solomon, to riches, power, and every exterior acquirement. The blue colour of the sapphire represents Faith: the verdure of the emerald, Hope: the redness of the ruby, Charity; and the splendour of the topaz, Good Works."

This, however, was not sufficient to appease him. He vented his rage against all those who had concurred in the irregular instalment; and the pope, on his part, prepared to assert his claims by the application of his spiritual thunders. The kingdom was, consequently. placed under an Interdict; the execution of which was calculated to strike the senses in the highest degree, and operate on the mind with irresistible force. The nation was suddenly deprived of all exterior exercise of religion. The altars were despoiled of their ornaments: the crosses, the relics, the images, the statues of the saints, were laid upon the ground; and, as if the air itself was profaned, and might pollute them by its contact, the priests carefully covered them up,

even from their own approach and veneration. The use of bells entirely ceased in all the churches: mass was celebrated with closed doors; and none but the priests were allowed to be present at the ceremony. The laity partook of no religious rite, except baptism to new-born infants, and the communion to the dying: the dead were not interred in consecrated ground; they were thrown into ditches, or buried in the fields. Marriage was celebrated in the churchyards; and, that every action in life might bear the marks of this dreadful situation, the people were prohibited the use of meat, as in lent; were debarred from every pleasure, and forbidden to salute each other, or even to shave their beards, or give any decent attention to their persons or apparel. Every circumstance carried the appearance of the deepest distress, and produced an apprehension of immediate divine indignation and vengeance.

Dreadful, however, as this sentence was, the king seems to have been less alarmed by it than the pope expected. John appeared determined to set him at defiance. The pope, therefore, proceeded to issue against him the more dreadful sentence of excommunication: he likewise absolved his subjects from their oath of allegiance; solemnly deposed him from his throne; and gave his dominions to the king of France.

But John, was at last induced, after a violent struggle, to yield to the pope; and even to submit to the mortifying condition of acknowledging himself a vassal of the Roman see. He resigned his dominions to pope Innocent and his successors; and agreed to hold them by the annual payment of a thousand marks. He did homage to Pandolph, the pope's legate, with all the submissive forms which the feudal law required of vassals before their superior lord. He came disarmed into the legate's presence, who was seated on a throne; threw himself on his knees before him; lifted up his joined hands, and put them within those of Pandolph; swore fealty to the pope; and paid a part of the stipulated tribute.

Such, were the unhappy consequences of John's homage, that the value of English benefices, at one time possessed by Italian non-resident priests, exceeded the ordinary revenue of the crown; and the historians of that age tell us, that Rome sheared all Europe, but in England she stripped off the skin.

In the mean time, John's natural inclination to tyranny increased. He seemed, wantonly, to disgust all orders of

men; especially his nobles; from whom, alone, he could reasonably expect assistance. He dishonoured their families by licentious amours; restrained them from hunting feathered game; ordered that all the hedges and fences near his forests, should be leveled, to give his deer access into the fields for pasture; and continually loaded the nation with arbitrary taxes. He once demanded a large sum of money from a Jew of Bristol; and, on his refusal, ordered one of his teeth to be drawn, every day, until he would comply. The Jew allowed seven teeth to be taken, and then paid the required amount.

Enough has been already detailed, to show the necessity of reform. We shall now give a summary view of the glorious effects which resulted from this tyranny, when the crisis had arrived.

The barons, having chosen Robert Fitz-Walter for their general, took the field, in defence of their honour and their liberty. John, being soon left with a very slender retinue, was unable to withstand this strenuous attack. A conference was appointed to be held at Runnemede, between Windsor and Staines; a place which has ever since been celebrated, on account of this great event. The king and
1215. the barons encamped apart, as open enemies; and, after a debate of a few days, John, with a facility rather suspicious, signed the contract which was required. This famous deed, commonly called MAGNA CHARTA, or the Great Charter, either granted or secured very important liberties and privileges to every order of men in the kingdom; to the clergy, to the barons, and to the people.

One clause in this venerable instrument deserves particular attention; as it formed the germe of the present British Parliament; or rather re-established the Saxon Wittenagemot, and the great national council, such as it was before the Conquest, and such as William had solemnly sworn to maintain: "No scutage or aid shall be imposed, but by the great council of the nation; except in the three general feudal cases—the king's captivity, the knighting of his eldest son, and the marriage of his eldest daughter: the prelates, earls, and great barons, shall be called to this great council, each by a particular writ; the lesser barons, by a general summons of the sheriff."

The liberties of Englishmen are not (as some arbitrary writers would represent them) mere infringements on the king's prerogative, extorted from their princes, by taking

advantage of their weakness; but a restoration of their ancient constitution, of which their ancestors had been defrauded, by the art and finesse of the Norman lawyers, rather than by the force of the Norman arms.

John died in the castle of Newark-upon-Trent, in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the eighteenth of his reign. He left two legitimate sons; Henry and Richard; the former nine, the latter only seven years old.

It was in this reign, that the citizens of London procured a charter, which conferred on them the right of choosing, annually, a mayor, out of their own body; that office, previously, having been held for life. They also obtained the power to elect and remove their sheriffs at pleasure; and their common-council-men every year. London Bridge was finished in this reign; being erected on the site of a previous structure which was of wood.

HENRY THE THIRD.

1216—1272.

The concession of the Great Charter, or rather its full establishment, for there was a considerable interval between the one and the other, introduced a degree of order and justice into the administration. Yet this charter made no provision for the creation of new courts, or magistrates, or senates, nor for the abolition of the old. It made no innovation in the public law of the kingdom. It only enforced the operation of those laws which already existed. The barbarous license of the king, and perhaps also of the nobles, was, thenceforth, more restrained: men acquired additional security for their liberties; and political authority approached nearer to that end for which it was originally instituted—the distribution of justice, and the equal protection of the citizens.

Were we, in delineating the events of this reign, to devote attention in proportion to their number, we should be exercising a talent destructive of the real utility of history Who could have the patience to write, or even to read, a long detail of such frivolous occurrences, as those with which it is filled; or attend to the tedious narrative, which would follow, through a period of fifty-six years, the caprices of so weak a monarch as Henry?

The earl of Pembroke was appointed protector of the kingdom, during the minority of the young prince. This nobleman, who had maintained his loyalty to John, through

the lowest fortune of that monarch, determined to support the authority of the infant king; and was not dismayed by the number or violence of his enemies. As the nation was still agitated by the effects of those struggles made in the preceding reign, Pembroke wrote letters, in the king's name, to the malcontent barons; in which, he represented, that, whatever animosity they might have entertained against the late king, there had now succeeded to the throne a young prince, the lineal heir of their ancient sovereigns: that, as all past offences of the barons were now buried in oblivion, they ought, on their part, to forget their complaints against the deceased monarch; who, if he had been in any measure blameable in his conduct, left to his son the salutary warning, to avoid the paths which had led to extremities so fatal; and, that having now obtained a charter for their liberties, it was their interest to show, that the acquisition was not incompatible with their allegiance; and, that the rights of king and people, so far from being hostile and opposite, might mutually support and sustain each other.

These considerations, enforced by the great weight of the protector's character, had a powerful influence on the barons. The majority began secretly to negotiate with him: many soon openly returned to their duty; and, in a few months, a general pacification was effected. But Pembroke did not long survive the consummation of his labours. He was succeeded by Peter de Roches, bishop of Winchester, and Hubert de Burgh, high justiciary. The latter took the most active part in the administration. Though, however, he was a statesman of considerable ability, and a man of honour, yet he was not possessed of sufficient authority to restrain the turbulence of the barons. They held, by force, the royal castles, which had been committed to their custody by the protector: they seized the royal demesnes; oppressed their vassals; invited disorderly people to live upon their lands, and gave them protection in all their robberies and devastations.

1222. Notwithstanding these intestine commotions, and the precarious authority of the crown, (Henry being now only in his sixteenth year,) the kingdom was obliged to carry on a war with France. But no military action of any moment was performed on either side.

De Burgh, the most virtuous minister that Henry ever possessed, having been removed from office, was succeeded by his colleague, the bishop of Winchester. Henry, though

incapable of pursuing the same violent measures, by which his father had so disgusted the nation, had imbibed similar principles of tyranny; and, prompted by the evil counsel of his minister, drove the barons to form another combination against the crown. In a very full parliament when he demanded a supply of money, he was openly reproached with the breach of his word, and the frequent violations of the great charter. He was asked, whether he did not blush, when desiring aid from a people whom he professedly hated and despised; to whom, on all occasions, he preferred foreigners; and who groaned under the oppressions which he either exercised or permitted. He was told, that besides insulting the nobility, by forcing them to contract unequal and mean marriages with strangers, no rank of men was so low as to escape vexations, from himself or his ministers: that even the meat consumed in his household; the clothes which he and his servants wore—still more, the wine, which they used; were all taken, by force, from the lawful owners: that foreign merchants shunned the English harbours, as if they were possessed by pirates; and commerce, with every nation, was thus cut off by violence: and that, even the poor fishermen could not escape the oppression of himself and his courtiers.

On one occasion, the ecclesiastical order sent a deputation of four prelates—the primate, the bishops of Winchester, Salisbury, and Carlisle, to remonstrate with him on his frequent violations of their privileges, the oppressions with which he had loaded them and all his subjects, and *the uncanonical and forced elections which were made to vacant dignities in the church.* "It is true," replied the king, "I have been rather faulty, in this particular. I obtruded you, my lord of Canterbury, upon your see: I was obliged to employ both intreaties, and menaces, my lord of Winchester, to have you elected: my proceedings, I confess, were very irregular, my lords of Salisbury and Carlisle, when I raised you, from the lowest stations, to your present dignities. I am, therefore, determined, henceforth, to correct these abuses; and it will also become you, in order to make a thorough reformation, to resign your present benefices, and try to enter again in a more regular and canonical manner." The bishops, surprised by these unexpected sarcasms, replied, that the question was not how to correct errors which were past, but how to avoid them for the future.

1258. The imprudent and illegal measures of the government induced Simon de Mountfort, earl of Lei

cester, a brother-in-law of the king, to attempt a revolution. Assisted by many powerful barons, he waged war against the king, and compelled him to agree to an extensive reform; particularly as regarded a more equal and popular representation in parliament. This reign, therefore, may be considered as the epoch of the House of Commons. Two knights were now elected, to sit in the legislature, from each county; and deputies were admitted also from the boroughs. The parliaments, before, seem to have consisted exclusively of the nobles.

Overcome by the cares of government and the infirmities of age, the king died at St. Edmondsbury, when he had reached the sixty-fourth year of his age, and the fifty-sixth of his reign; leaving two sons—Edward, his successor, and Edmund, earl of Lancaster; also two daughters—Margaret, queen of Scotland, and Beatrix, dutchess of Brittany.

In this reign, the manufacturing of linen was introduced into England, although there was yet in the kingdom no cultivation of flax; and, coals, the first that were raised in the country, were dug from the mines at New Castle. The state of our language, about this time, may be discerned by the following extract from an historical poem, written by Robert of Gloucester.*

The greatest luminary of science in the whole world, during this century, was Roger Bacon; a Franciscan friar, born near Ilchester, in 1214. He began his studies at Oxford; from which seminary, he went to Paris: and, after a long residence there, he returned to England, and studied experimental philosophy with unremitting ardour. This extraordinary man was familiar with the theory and practice of perspective; understood the use of concave and convex glasses; knew the great error in the kalendar, and proposed the remedy. He was also an adept in chemistry, and he is mentioned as the inventor of gunpowder. Through the envy and malice of his illiterate fraternity, who spread the puerile report of his dealing with an evil spirit, he was imprisoned in his cell for ten years, and the reading of his works prohibited. These are, "*Epistola fratris Rogeri*

*Of þe batayles of Denemarch, þat hii dude in þys londe
þat worst were of alle oþere, we motte abbe an honde.
Worst hii were vor oþere adde somwanne ydo,
As Romeyns & Saxons, & well wuste þat lond þerto.
Ac hii ne kept yt holde noȝt, bote robby, and ssende,
And destrue, & berne, & sle, & ne coupe abbe non ende.

Baconis de secretis operibus artis et naturæ, et de nullitate magiæ;" printed in Paris in 1542;—"*Opus majus;*"—"*Thesaurus chemicus;*" all in Latin; the titles of which may be translated thus: The Letter of brother Roger Bacon, on the secret operations of art and nature, and on the non-existence of magic—The Greater Work—The Chemical Treasury—He died, in the succeeding reign, in the eightieth year of his age.

The other distinguished scholars of this time, were Giraldus Cambrensis, Matthew Paris, and Bracton. The latter was chief justice, and wrote, in the Latin language, as it was then usual, a book on the laws and customs of England; which is one of the most ancient as well as most methodical works of the kind produced in Britain.

EDWARD THE FIRST.

1272—1307.

In a battle at Evesham, and many other engagements in his father's reign, as well as in a crusade against the Saracens, Edward had given most striking indications of those splendid talents for command, by which, after he ascended the throne, he was so eminently distinguished. He so terrified the Saracens, that they employed a ruffian to assassinate him. Having procured admittance to the prince, under pretence of negotiating, he took an opportunity, when only Edward and himself were in the room, to aim a poisoned dagger at his breast. Edward found means to ward off the stroke; though, in so doing, he was wounded in the arm; and, perceiving the wretch about to repeat the blow, he struck him so forcibly with his foot, that he threw him upon the ground; and then, wresting the dagger from his hand, he plunged it into the barbarian's heart. Edward's wound seemed, at first, very dangerous: but it was at last cured, according to many writers, by the devoted affection of his consort, Eleanor of Castile; who, in order to save her husband's life, at the evident hazard of her own, sucked out the poison with her mouth.

Edward had reached Sicily, in his return from the Holy Land, when he received information of his father's death; upon which occasion, he discovered a deep concern. At the same time, he was told of the death of an infant son, John; whom Eleanor had borne him in Palestine. As he appeared much less affected with this misfortune, the king

of Sicily expressed his surprise; to whom, Edward replied, that the death of a child was a loss which he might hope to repair—the death of a parent was a loss irreparable. In his passage through Chalons, in Burgundy, he was challenged, by the prince of that country, to a tournament; and, as Edward excelled in that martial and dangerous exercise, the true image of war, he did not decline the opportunity of acquiring honour and renown, in presence of so many nobles as were then collected. But the resemblance of war was, here, unfortunately, turned into reality. Edward and his retinue were so successful in the jousts, that the French knights, provoked at their superiority, made a serious attack, which was repulsed; and much blood was idly shed in the quarrel.

It is said, that, in order to heighten the grandeur of his coronation, five-hundred horses were turned loose, with liberty for every one to keep as many as he could catch.

Edward lost no time in commencing the removal of those disorders, which the civil commotions, and the loose administration of his father, had introduced into every part of the government. But, notwithstanding the judicious institutions, and public spirited plans, of this prince, we cannot acquit him of those numerous charges, which the history of his own time displays, respecting the severity of his disposition, and the unrestrained extortion which he exercised, when money was required. He was an upright arbiter between one subject and another; but, in his own cause, a rapacious tyrant. The Jews, who, since their first establishment in England, were invariably persecuted and plundered, felt, in this reign, the overwhelming effects of his oppression. Had these unfortunate people been devoid of riches, they would also have been free from the imputation of crime.

1276. The king now undertook an enterprise, the success of which might have been as glorious to himself, as it was advantageous to his people. This was, the conquest of Wales. Lewellyn, prince of that country, had been deeply engaged with the Mountfort party; and had employed every expedient to depress the royal cause, and promote the encroachments of the barons. In the general accommodation, though Lewellyn had obtained a pardon, yet he seized every opportunity of sowing dissentions amongst the English, and lessening the authority of government. Edward was not displeased with this occasion for exercising his favourite pursuit of war, and reducing

entirely, the principality of Wales. The Welsh prince had no resource but in retiring to his mountains, which were inaccessible to an invading army; and had, hitherto, through so many ages, defended his predecessors against all the attempts of the Saxons and the Normans. He took refuge in the hills of Snowdon; and resolved to hold out to the last extremity. But Edward, equally vigorous and cautious, entering by the north, pierced into the heart of the country; and, having carefully explored every road before him, and secured every pass behind, he approached the Welsh army in its last retreat. He here avoided putting to trial the valour of a nation, proud of its ancient independence, and inflamed with animosity against its hereditary enemies; but trusted to the slow, though sure effects, of famine. Destitute of magazines, and cooped up in a narrow corner, the Welsh army and their cattle suffered equal deprivation; and Lewellyn, without being able to strike a single blow, submitted to the discretion of the victor. He bound himself to pay to Edward fifty-thousand pounds, as reparation for damages, to do homage to the crown of England, and relinquish the country between Cheshire and the river Conway.

But the English, insolent from the recollection of their easy victory, oppressed the inhabitants of the ceded districts; and, by many other injuries, raised the indignation of the Welsh; so that they determined, again to encounter a force, already found to be so much superior, rather than any longer submit to the severity of oppression. They flew to arms. This was what Edward had desired. With a powerful army, he advanced with rapidity into Wales—he fought and was victorious. All the Welsh nobility submitted to the conqueror: the laws of England were established in the principality; an important object, which it had required eight-hundred years fully to effectuate.

It is with reluctance that we sully our pages with the deeds of cruelty which he then committed. Sensible that nothing kept alive the ideas of military valour and of ancient glory, so much as the traditional poetry of the people, which, assisted by the power of music, and the jollity of festivals, made a deep impression on the minds of the youth, he gathered together all the Welsh bards, and, with a barbarous policy, ordered them to be put to death.

We now come to give some account of the affairs of Scotland, which produced the most important occurrences of this reign.

The intercourse of that kingdom with England, either in peace or war, hitherto produced so few events of moment, that we have paid them little attention. The government of Scotland was continually exposed to those factions and convulsions, which are incident to all barbarous countries, and to many that are civilized; but, though the succession of their kings had been disordered by irregularities and usurpations, the true heir of the royal family, had, ultimately, prevailed; and Alexander the third, who had married Edward's sister, probably inherited, after a period of eight-hundred years, and through a succession of males, that sceptre which was held by the first king, at the time of the original establishment of the Scottish monarchy. Alexander died, without leaving any male issue, or any descendants, except Margaret, his grand-daughter. This princess, then a minor, seemed, under the protection of Edward, her grand-uncle, to be firmly seated on the throne of Scotland. The English monarch was, however, incited to form ambitious projects on this event; and, having, lately, by force of arms, brought Wales under subjection, attempted, by the marriage of the queen with his eldest son, Edward, to unite the whole island under one monarchy, and, thereby, give it security against invasion. The sudden death of the young princess defeated the king's intentions. Twelve claimants now appeared; who, by various titles, demanded their right of succession to the Scottish crown; but all these were very soon reduced to three; by the less remote proofs offered, individually, by John Hastings, John Baliol, and Robert Bruce. Scotland was threatened with a civil war. Its parliament, therefore, referred the dispute to Edward; not reflecting on his ambitious character, and the almost certain ruin which is likely to attend a small state, divided by factions, when it thus submits to the will of a neighbour, so powerful and encroaching. The temptation was too strong for the English monarch to resist. He designed, if not to create, at least to revive, a claim, of feudal superiority over Scotland He gave his award in favour of Baliol; who was, accordingly, put in possession of the kingdom. The decision, itself, was just; and, had Edward done no more, he would have acted an honourable part. But John did not receive an independent crown. It was loaded with the disgrace of vassalage. One insult was followed by another: a war ensued: Edward marched with a powerful army into Scotland; and, after a great battle fought near Dunbar, reduced

1286.

the whole country to subjection. The feeble and timid Baliol hastened to make submission to the British king; and surrendered into his hands a crown, which he was more suited to dishonour than adorn.

1296. But the high spirited chiefs of Scotland, could not long endure the indignities of those appointed to govern them. Almost every nation has, at some period produced a hero. William Wallace was the agent, who, by his patriotism, was incited to undertake, and, by his courage and abilities, enabled to bring about, the deliverance of his country. Though, however, the intrepid Wallace lived not to see the consummation of his hopes, (having been betrayed into Edward's hands, and barbarously hanged in London) yet, the flame which he had imparted to his brave associates, survived the throbbings of the breast which gave it birth. After an arduous struggle for many years, they broke the British bonds; and placed the crown, once more, upon the head of a native prince,—Robert Bruce; a man of conspicuous valour, grandson of that Robert who had been a competitor for the crown.

1307. Edward, in his march to Scotland with a large army, died suddenly at Carlisle, in the north of England; in the sixty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-fifth of his reign; having enjoined, with his last breath, his son and successor never to desist until he had finally subdued that kingdom.

The great talents of this prince as a legislator, have gained him the appellation of the English Justinian: to the form into which he modeled the common-law, the wisdom of succeeding ages has not been able to add any considerable improvement. The house of commons, during this reign, made a still nearer approach to its present dignity; but, as yet, the members of that body acted merely as Assessors of the public taxes; they were allowed no interference, whatever, in the enactment of laws. The delegates considered their election as a burthen, and, like the members of the American Congress, at the present day, were remunerated for their services.

EDWARD THE SECOND.

1307—1327.

This prince, the only surviving son of the late king, was now in his twenty-third year. He was of a gentle disposi

tion; and, as he had never discovered a propensity to any dangerous vice, it was natural to prognosticate tranquillity and happiness from his government. But he soon showed himself to be totally unqualified for the difficult task of managing a turbulent people. Always attached to some unworthy favourite, he forfeited the esteem of his subjects. Piers Gavaston, a native of Gascony, was the first that he selected as a companion in his frivolous pursuits. But that unfortunate associate, in proportion as he was caressed by the prince, became obnoxious to the barons; and fell a victim to their fury. His next favourite, was Hugh le Despenser, commonly called Spenser, a young Englishman of a noble family; who, with his father, a man of immense estates, exercised unbounded sway over the royal mind.

By the inconsiderate surrender of his authority, and the unremitting attention paid by Edward to his favourite, he lost the affections of Isabella, his queen. She retired to the court of her brother, the king of France. There, she met a young Welch nobleman, named Roger Mortimer; who, also, being inimical to the administration of the Spensers, was easily admitted to her company. The graces of his person and address gained quickly on her affections: he became her confidant and counsellor in all her measures; and, at last, engaged her to sacrifice every principle of conjugal fidelity and honour. Hating, now, the man whom she had injured, and whom she had never highly valued, she entered warmly into all Mortimer's conspiracies; and, having artfully got into her hands the young prince, the heir of the monarchy, who was then at Paris, she resolved on the utter ruin of the king and his obnoxious companion She accordingly came over into England; where, being joined by many of the powerful nobility, the Spensers soon fell a sacrifice to the general attack. The unfortunate monarch, after in vain attempting to escape, fell into the hands of his enemies; and the queen summoned a parliament, which voted his dethronement. Edward did not long survive this humiliation: he was put to death, in the most barbarous manner, by the infamous Mortimer and his associates, in the forty-third year of his age, and the twentieth of his reign.

In the sixth year of this reign, was fought, about two miles from Stirling, in Scotland, the celebrated battle of Bannockburn. Edward himself commanded the English forces, and Robert Bruce, the Scottish king, those of his own country. This engagement ended in the signal over-

throw of the British army; and firmly established the victorious Robert on the throne of his ancestors.

EDWARD THE THIRD.

1327—1377.

A council of regency was now chosen by parliament, to superintend the administration of the laws; and the earl of Lancaster, a nobleman of the blood royal, was appointed guardian and protector of young Edward, eldest son of the late monarch.

Although it might reasonably be expected, that, as the weakness of his father had caused an alarming licentiousness amongst the barons, the first disturbance of the public tranquillity would proceed from them; yet, it was from external enemies, that the country felt its earliest attack. The king of Scotland, though advanced in years, still retained that martial spirit which had raised his nation from the lowest ebb of fortune, and deemed the present opportunity favourable for invading England. He first made an attack on the castle of Norham; in which, he was disappointed. He then mustered, on the frontiers, an army of twenty-five-thousand men; and, having selected the earl of Murray and Lord Douglas, as generals, he threatened an incursion into the northern counties. The English regency, after ineffectually using every expedient to restore peace with Scotland, made vigorous preparations for war; and, besides a native army of sixty-thousand men, they procured a large body of foreign cavalry, much superior in discipline to the forces of their own country. Young Edward, burning with a passion for military fame, appeared at their head; though now only in his fifteenth year; and marched in quest of the enemy, who had already passed the frontiers, laying waste every thing around them. Murray and Douglas were the two most celebrated warriors that arose in the long hostilities between the Scots and English; and their forces, trained in the same school, were perfectly qualified for this desultory and destructive warfare. Except a body of four thousand cavalry, well appointed, and fit to make a steady impression in a regular battle, their army consisted of light-armed troops, mounted on small horses, which could find subsistence any where, and carry them, with rapidity, whether they meant to commit depredations on the peaceable inhabitants, to attack an armed enemy, or retreat into

their own country. The whole equipage of one of these soldiers, consisted in a bag of oatmeal, which he carried behind him; and a light plate of iron, on which, in the open fields, he quickly baked his meal into a cake. But the principal resource was the cattle which he seized; the cookery of which was as expeditious as any of his other operations. After skinning the animal, he placed the hide, loose, and hanging in the form of a bag, upon some stakes: then poured water into it, kindled a fire below, and thus made it serve as a cauldron, for boiling his meat.

After Edward had long, in vain, followed the enemy, who, being little encumbered, were so rapid in their marches, he found, at last, that they had fixed their camp on the southern bank of the Were, as if they intended to await a battle; but their prudent leaders had chosen their ground with so much judgment, that the English saw it was impracticable to cross the river in their face, for the purpose of attacking them in their present situation. Impatient for revenge and glory, Edward sent them a defiance; and challenged them to meet him in an equal field, and try the fortune of their arms. The bold spirit of Douglas could not withstand this bravado, and he advised the acceptance of the challenge: but he was over-ruled by Murray; who replied to Edward, that he never took the counsel of an enemy.

Whilst the armies lay in this position, an incident occurred, which had nearly proved fatal to the English. Douglas, having got the watch-word, entered their camp secretly, in the night time, with a body of two-hundred chosen warriors; and advanced to the royal tent, with a design of killing the prince, or carrying him off through the midst of his army. But, in that critical moment, some of Edward's attendants, awaking, made resistance: his chaplain and chamberlain sacrificed their lives for his safety; the king himself, after making a valiant defence, escaped in the dark; and Douglas, after losing the greater part of his followers, was glad, with the remainder, to make a hasty retreat. Soon afterwards, the enemy silently decamped, in the dead of night, and arrived, without further loss, in their own country; leaving the English monarch highly incensed at the disappointment.

1330. The infamous Mortimer, having added, by repeated crimes, to the heavy weight of guilt by which he had rendered himself unworthy of existence, was, at length, condemned by a vote of parliament, and hung, on a gibbet,

in the neighbourhood of London. Justice was also executed on some of the inferior criminals; particularly Simon de Bereford; and the queen was confined to her house at Risings.

1331. The brave and valiant Bruce, who had recovered by arms the independence of his country, having now yielded to the hand of Death, (that conqueror, whose unerring dart strikes, equally, the monarch and the subject,) the earl of Murray was appointed guardian to his son, David, then a minor. Edward, the son of that John Baliol, who had been crowned king of Scotland, lived at this time in Normandy, on a patrimonial estate; without any thoughts of reviving the claims of his family to the crown of Scotland. But, a dispute having arisen respecting the interpretation of a treaty, made between England and Scotland, by which all claim of superiority over the latter kingdom had been renounced, Baliol was now induced, by the English, to renew his pretensions to the Scottish throne. This produced a contest; in which Edward was busily engaged. Baliol was put in possession of the crown, but was soon driven from the kingdom; and, after a series of military events, unimportant at the present day, affairs stood nearly in the same state as before the war.

We come now to a transaction, on which depended the most memorable events, not only of this long and active reign, but of the whole English or French history, during more than a century. Edward, when a youth of but fifteen years of age, had fondly cherished the idea that he was entitled, in right of his mother, to succeed to the crown of France, upon the death of Charles the Fair. There cannot be conceived a claim weaker, or worse grounded. The principle of excluding females, had been long established in that country, and had acquired equal authority with the most positive law. It was supported by ancient precedents: it was confirmed by recent instances, deliberately and solemnly decided; and if Edward was inclined to question its validity, he thereby cut off his own pretensions; as each of the last three kings left daughters, who were still alive, and stood before him in the order of succession. He was, therefore, reduced to assert, that, although his mother, Isabella, was, on account of her sex, incapable of succeeding, he himself, who inherited through her, was not liable to any objection, and might claim by the right of propinquity. Though, however, the youthful and ambitious mind of Edward had rashly entertained this idea, he did not im-

mediately insist on his pretensions; as Philip, the monarch, then on the throne of France, was a prince of mature years, and of an established character, both for prudence and valour It is, therefore, highly probable, that he would have totally relinquished his pretensions, but for some incidents, which, subsequently, excited a high degree of animosity between the two monarchs.

1337. Edward, now prepared for a powerful invasion of the French territories. However, before he entered on this great enterprise, he affected to consult his parliament, and obtained an apparent approbation. He procured from them a grant of twenty-thousand sacks of wool, (the principal article of export in those days,) which was a good instrument to employ with the Flemings, and the price of it with his German allies; as he had previously made arrangements for a supply of troops, with many eminent leaders amongst these people. But, after entering the French territory, and assuming the title of King of France, he was intimidated by the powerful force which Philip brought against his hireling troops, and, at last, returned into Flanders; where he dispersed his army.

1340. But Edward was not discouraged by the first difficulty of an undertaking. He passed over into England, procured a reinforcement, and fitted out a fleet; with which he again set sail for the invasion of France. Philip, having been apprized of the preparations making both in England and the Low Countries, collected a fleet of four-hundred vessels, having on board forty-thousand men. These, he stationed off Sluys; with a view of intercepting his antagonist. The navy of Edward was much inferior in number; consisting only of two-hundred-and-forty sail. A fierce and sanguinary engagement ensued. The English archers, then highly celebrated, galled the French on their approach; and, when the vessels grappled, and the contest was changed to close fighting, the example of the king and his gallant nobles so highly animated the soldiery and seamen, that they maintained, every where, a superiority. Thirty-thousand of the enemy were killed, and two-hundred-and-thirty of their vessels taken; although the loss on the side of the English was inconsiderable. It is said, that none of Philip's courtiers dared to inform him of this disaster, until his fool or jester had given him a hint, by which he was led to discover his misfortune.

The German allies of Edward, seeing now a strong pro-

bability of being paid for their services, assembled their forces, and expeditiously joined his army. He marched to the frontiers of France, at the head of above one-hundred-thousand men; a more numerous body than any that had previously, or that has since, been commanded by a king of England. But he was completely frustrated in his attempts; and, after making a truce with the enemy, again returned into England.

1346. The truce having expired, Edward again invaded France. His army, which, during the ensuing campaign, was crowned with the most splendid success, numbered thirty-thousand; and consisted of four-thousand men at arms, ten-thousand archers, ten-thousand Welsh infantry, and six-thousand Irish. The Welsh and Irish were light, disorderly troops; fitter for doing execution in a pursuit, or ravaging a country, than for any regular action. The king created the earl of Arundel, constable of his army; the earls of Warwick and Harcourt, marshals: and, immediately upon his landing, conferred the honour of knighthood on several of the young nobility, and on his eldest son, the prince of Wales; who, from the colour of his armour, received the name of the Black Prince. He then spread his army over the country; and, though Philip used every precaution that prudence could suggest, or abilities could execute, Edward penetrated the kingdom with rapidity, and some of his light troops carried their ravages to the very gates of Paris.

But being closely pressed by the French monarch, he was, at length, obliged to act on the defensive. Besides the numerous parties of the enemy, who, under the most experienced commanders, assailed him in front and in rear, on his right and on his left, Philip himself advanced, at the head of a hundred-thousand men.

As his last resource, he took an advantageous post near the village of Crecy. He disposed his army in excellent order; determined to await, in tranquillity, the arrival of the enemy; for, he expected that their eagerness to engage, after all their past disappointments, would hurry them on to some rash or ill-concerted action. He drew up his forces on a gentle ascent; and divided them into three lines. The first was commanded by the prince of Wales; and, under him, by the earls of Warwick, Oxford, and Harcourt, the lords Chandos, Holland, and other noblemen The earls of Arundel and Northampton, with the lords Willoughby, Basset, Ross, and sir Lewis Tufton, were at

the head of the second. The king took on himself the command of the third line, which he intended as a reserve He had the precaution to throw up trenches on his flanks: and placed all his baggage behind him, in a wood; which also he secured by an entrenchment.

That he might infuse confidence and spirit throughout his army, Edward rode along the ranks, with an air of cheerfulness and alacrity; and then addressing them: "I demand, only," said he, "that you will imitate my own example, and that of my son, the prince of Wales; and, as the honour, the lives, the liberties, of all, are now exposed to the same danger, I am confident you will make one common effort to extricate yourselves from your present difficulties, and, that your united courage, will give you the victory over all your enemies."

The French army, very imperfectly formed into three lines, already fatigued and in disorder, now arrive in presence of their enemy. The first line, consisting of fifteen-thousand Genoese cross-bow-men, was commanded by Doria and Grimaldi. The second was led by the count D'Alençon, Philip's brother. The king himself was at the head of the third. There were in the field, on the side of the French monarch, no less than three crowned heads; the king of Bohemia, the king of the Romans, and the king of Majorca; with all the nobility, and the great vassals of the crown. His army amounted to one-hundred-and-twenty-thousand: four times the number of his adversary's.—The Genoese begin the attack. The English keep their ranks firm and immoveable, and pour forth a rapid stream of well directed arrows. The Genoese, in confusion, fall back upon the line of D'Alençon; who, enraged at their cowardice, orders his troops to put them to the sword.—The artillery of the English now fire amongst the crowd: the archers ply, incessantly, their well-bent bows: all, amongst the enemy, is hurry and confusion, terror and dismay. The young prince of Wales seizes the advantage, and leads on his line to the charge.—Now, the French cavalry, recovered from the disorder into which they had been thrown by the runaways, advance upon their assailants, and, by their superior numbers, begin to hem them round. —The battle becomes for some time hot and dangerous; and the earl of Warwick, apprehensive of the event, despatches a messenger to the king, entreating him to send succours for the relief of the prince.

Edward had chosen his station on the top of a hill; from

which, he surveyed, in tranquillity, the scene of action. When the messenger accosted him, his first question was, whether the prince was slain or wounded—On receiving an answer in the negative, "Return," said he, "to my son, and tell him I reserve the glory of this day for him: he will be able, without my assistance, to repel the enemy."

The prince and his attendants are now inspired with new courage. They make an attack, with redoubled vigour, upon the French: D'Alençon falls: the whole line of cavalry is thrown into disorder: the riders are killed or dismounted—The king of France comes up to their relief—but the confusion is past remedy—the whole French army take to flight, and are followed, and put to the sword without mercy, until the pursuit is ended by the darkness of the night.

There fell, on the side of France, twelve-hundred knights, fourteen-hundred gentlemen, and above thirty-thousand of inferior rank. Many of the principal nobility, and the kings of Majorca and Bohemia, were left dead upon the field. The fate of the latter was remarkable. He was blind from age; but, being resolved to hazard his person for an example, he ordered that the reins of his bridle should be tied, on the outside, to the horses of two gentlemen of his train; from which arrangement, his dead body, and the bodies of his attendants, were afterwards found together, with their horses standing by them. His crest was three ostrich feathers; and his motto these German words: *Ich dien.* [I serve.] The prince of Wales adopted them, as a memorial of his great victory; and both crest and motto are, at the present day, used by the king of Great Britain's eldest son. The loss of the English in this engagement was remarkably small—only three knights, one esquire, and very few of inferior rank.

Edward, having taken the town of Calais, after one of the most celebrated sieges in the annals of the world, and having concluded a truce with France, returned into England.*

1356. When the truce expired, the war with France was renewed; and the prince of Wales was intrusted with the chief command. He invaded France, and sig-

*The battle of Crecy was the first affair of importance in which Artillery was used. Though the French also were in possession of the invention, they had not any cannon at Crecy: probably in their hurry they had left them behind

nalized himself by gaining the celebrated victory of Poictiers. He had but twelve-thousand men; the enemy sixty-thousand: yet the latter were completely routed; leaving their monarch, John, a captive with the prince. The French king was treated by young Edward with the greatest humanity and respect; but was carried as a prisoner to London. Here, he met a companion in his misfortunes David Bruce, the Scottish king, had been eleven years a prisoner in the hands of Edward. After remaining three years, it was agreed, that John should obtain his liberty, by paying three-millions of gold crowns: a mutual adjustment of provinces was made; and Edward relinquished his claim to the throne of France.

1376. The health of the Black Prince had long been declining; and, after a lingering illness, he died in the forty-sixth year of his age; illustrious by every virtue, and, from his earliest youth, until the hour in which he expired, unstained by any blemish.

The king survived only a few months this melancholy incident. He died in the sixty-fifth year of his age, and the fifty-first of his reign.

The order of the Garter was instituted by this prince; and it was he who built the magnificent castle of Windsor, aided by the architectural knowledge of the learned William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester. A parochial assessment for the poor now began. The woolen manufacture was promoted by the introduction of foreign weavers and cloth-dressers; an act of parliament was passed, which prohibited the wearing of any cloth except of British manufacture; and that badge of conquest, the use of the French language in pleadings and public documents, was at this time abolished in England.

Having employed his arms successfully in subduing the crown of France, Edward thought it unbecoming the dignity of the victors to use any longer the language of the vanquished: it was therefore enacted, that all trials should proceed in the English tongue; and be entered and enrolled in Latin.

This reign is esteemed the fountain of English poetry. Chaucer, who flourished in the time of Edward, was not only the first poet, but among the best poetical writers, that England has ever shown. His poems, in general, display every kind of excellence, except melody and regularity of measure; defects which are to be attributed chiefly to the rude state of the English language, at the time in which he

wrote. The writings of sir John Mandeville, a scientific traveller, furnish us with its form in the year 1356, and show the gradual approximation to the present.*

RICHARD THE SECOND.

1377—1399.

Richard, the only surviving son of the Black Prince, was but eleven years of age when he succeeded to the throne. The young king was assisted in the government by his three uncles, the dukes of Lancaster, York, and Gloucester; sons of Edward the third; whose dangerous ambition was checked by the plain and unimpeachable title of Richard; the affectionate regard which the people bore to the memory of his father; and the different dispositions of the three princes. The duke of Lancaster was invested with the principal authority: but Gloucester, though the youngest, was the most conspicuous; being turbulent, bold, and popular.

The most remarkable event in this reign, was an insurrection of the people; the second, we believe, that occurred in England. This serious disturbance was caused by the unfair method of assessing a poll tax, and the severity with which it was collected. A determined spirit of resistance spread rapidly over many of the principal counties: the populace, worked up to the highest pitch of frenzy, by the most daring of their leaders, who assumed the names of Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, Hob Carter, and Tom Miller entered London; threatening almost universal destruction. However, by the address of young Richard, then only in his sixteenth year, and some promises made to them, this alarming commotion was, in a short time, quelled.

1394. The tranquillity of the northern borders was now disturbed; not so much from any national quarrel, as the rivalship between the two martial families of Percy of the north of England, and Douglas of Scotland. A well

* "In that lond, ne in many other bezonde that, no man may see the sterre transmontane, that is clept the sterre of the see, that is unmevable, and that is toward the Northe, that we clepen the lode sterre. But men see another sterre, the contrarie to him, that is toward the Southe, that is clept Antartyk. And right as the schip men taken here avys here, and governe hem be the lode sterre, right so don schip men bezonde the parties, be the sterre of the Southe, the which sterre apperethe not to us."

contested action took place at Otterburne; in which, young Percy (surnamed Hotspur) was taken prisoner, and Douglas slain.

Some insurrections in Ireland obliged the king to go over into that country; which he reduced to obedience But the general conduct of this prince was little suited to gain the affections even of his English subjects. Indolent, expensive, addicted to low pleasures, he spent the principal part of his life in riot and feasting; and dissipated, in idle show, or in bounties to his favourites, the revenue which should have been employed for the honour and advantage of the nation. Gloucester, taking advantage of the public feeling, formed a conspiracy against him: but the king seized his uncle, and hurried him off to Calais; where, it is supposed, he was assassinated. The duke of Lancaster (commonly called John of Gaunt) having shortly after died, was succeeded by his son, Henry, earl of Derby; who had, by his conduct and abilities, acquired the esteem of the public. Richard, however, refused to put this prince in possession of his paternal estates; which produced a general insurrection. The slender talents of the duke of York, who adhered to the royal cause, were unable to resist the storm. The king was dethroned, and Lancaster obtained the crown: the deposed monarch was immured in the castle of Pomfret; and the same party which had wrested from him his feeble sceptre, soon deprived him also of his life.

But, even had king Richard been justly dethroned, the crown did not regularly devolve upon Henry. By the rules of succession, the posterity of Lionel, duke of Clarence second surviving son of Edward the third, and brother of the Black Prince, were now entitled to the throne; the heir of which branch was the young earl of Marche, son of Philippa, the daughter of the duke of Clarence, by Edmond Mortimer; whose descendants, as will be seen hereafter, at length established their disputed title.

The House of Commons had now, decidedly, obtained the power of legislation.

John Wickliffe, a secular priest educated at Oxford, who, in the latter part of the preceding reign, had begun to spread the doctrine of religious reformation, died in 1385. His opinions were nearly the same as those afterwards propagated by Luther, and the other continental reformers, in the sixteenth century; having been carried over

into Germany by some young men who had been students at Oxford.*

CHAPTER XI

HENRY THE FOURTH.

1399—1413.

THE unfortunate Richard left no posterity. The earl of Marche, who, previous to the usurpation of the duke of Lancaster, had been declared the next in succession to the crown, was, at this time, a boy of only seven years of age; and, as his friends consulted his safety by observing a profound silence with regard to his title, Henry detained him and his younger brother in a kind of honourable custody, at Windsor Castle.

The new king, however, had to encounter many difficulties. He was opposed by a powerful body of the nobility: the peers, in the very first parliament summoned after his coronation, broke out into violent animosities; and forty gauntlets, the pledges of furious battle, were thrown on the floor of the house, by noblemen who gave challenges to as many members of opposite opinion. The king had sufficient authority to restrain the combats; but he was not able to produce reconciliation. These angry passions soon broke out into action; and nothing but the treachery of one of the conspirators, prevented Henry's dethronement from being as rapid as his elevation. Miserable monarch! whose

*The following specimen of the language in those days, is taken from Wickliffe's translation of the Bible.

LUK. CHAP. I. [LUKE.]

IN the days of Eroude kyng of Judee ther was a prest, Zacarye by name: of the sort of Abia, and his wyf was of the doughtris of Aaron: and hir name was Elizabeth.

2 And bothe weren juste bifore God: goynge in all the maundementis and justifyingis of the Lord withouten playnt.

3 And thei hadden no child, for Elizabeth was bareyn, and both weren of greet age in her dayes.

4 And it befel that whanne Zacarye schould do the office of prestnod, in the order of his course to fore God,

5 Aftir the custom of the presthod, he wente forth by lot and entride into the temple to encensen.

only security was the streaming of the scaffold; and whose tottering throne seemed still to vibrate with the agonies of his murdered predecessor!

The revolution in England caused an insurrection in Wales, and tempted the Scots to make incursions. In one of these, Archibald, earl of Douglas, with many more of his countrymen, were overtaken by the Percys at Homeldon, on the English borders, and made prisoners. Henry sent orders to the earl of Northumberland, not to ransom them; though by the laws of war, which then prevailed, he had that privilege. The impatient spirit of Harry Percy, and the factious disposition of the earl of Worcester, younger brother of Northumberland, inflamed the discontents of this nobleman, and induced him to seek revenge, by overturning that throne which he had assisted to establish. He entered into a correspondence with Glendour, a descendant of the ancient princes of Wales; liberated the earl of Douglas; made with him an alliance, and roused up all his partizans to arms. Northumberland having been suddenly deprived of health, the command devolved upon young Percy, his son; who marched towards Shrewsbury, in order to form a junction with Glendour. The king overtook Percy, before that nobleman was joined by his Welsh friends; and the policy of one leader, and impatience of the other, hastened on the engagement.—The shock was tremendous. The charges were incessant. Henry exposed himself in the thickest of the fight; and his gallant son, whose military feats became afterwards so famous, now signalized himself by his heroic bravery. Percy supported the renown which he had hitherto maintained; and Douglas, formerly his enemy, but now his friend, still appeared his rival, amidst the horror and confusion of the day. But, whilst the armies were thus contending, the death of Percy decided the victory, and the royalists prevailed. Douglas and Worcester were taken prisoners: the former was beheaded at Shrewsbury; the latter was treated with mercy and respect.

1403.

Thus, have been related, nearly all the memorable incidents of this reign; which, though crowded with sanguinary commotions, produced few events that deserve to be recorded.

After an illness of many months, the king expired at Westminster, in the forty-sixth year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign. He left four sons: Henry, who succeeded to the crown; Thomas, duke of Clarence; John,

duke of Bedford; and Humphrey, duke of Gloucester The military order of the Bath was now founded.

HENRY THE FIFTH.

1413—1422.

The precarious title by which the late king held his elevated situation, had naturally filled his mind with apprehension; and even his own son, whose reign is now the subject of narration, was not exempted from the pernicious effect of his unconquerable jealousies.

The active spirit of young Henry, restrained from its proper exercise in political pursuits, broke out, in his father's life time, into extravagancies of every kind; and he endeavoured to forget, in riot and debauchery, the disappointments of an ardent and ambitious mind.—The great English dramatist, who availed himself of every striking incident in history, has not omitted Henry as a fit subject for theatrical exhibition.—The nation, however, regarded the young prince with an indulgent feeling: they observed so many gleams of generosity, spirit, and magnanimity, breaking continually through the cloud, which a wild conduct had thrown over his character, that they never ceased hoping for his amendment; and ascribed all his irregularities to his father's inattention.

A riotous companion of the prince had been indicted for some disorders, before Gascoigne, the chief justice; and Henry appeared at the bar, to give him his countenance and protection. Finding that his presence had not overawed the judge, he proceeded to insult him on his tribunal; but Gascoigne, not forgetful of the dignity of his own character, and the respect which is due, by all, without distinction, to the laws, ordered the prince, for his rude behaviour, to be carried to prison. The spectators were agreeably surprised when they saw the heir of the crown peaceably submit to this sentence, make reparation for his error by an acknowledgment, and check his impetuosity in the midst of its career.

After his elevation to the regal dignity, the first step taken by the young monarch, confirmed all those prepossessions which had been entertained in his favour. He called together his former companions; acquainted them with his intended reformation; exhorted them to imitate his example; strictly forbade them to appear any more in his

presence, until they had given proofs of their amendment; and then dismissed them, with liberal presents. The wise and virtuous ministers of his father, and the upright and noble spirited Gascoigne, were told to persevere in the same impartial execution of the laws; and the character of the young king now appeared brighter than if it had never been shaded by any errors. Instead of continuing the restraints imposed by his father on the earl of Marche, he received him with singular courtesy and favour; which magnanimity gained so much on the gentle disposition of his rival, that he remained, ever after, sincerely attached to him, and gave no disturbance to his future government. The family of Percy was restored to its estate and honours: Henry's subjects were unanimous in their affection, and the defects of his title were forgot amidst their personal regard.

The late king, upon his death-bed, most emphatically enjoined his son, not to allow the English to remain long in peace; but to employ them in foreign expeditions: by which, he said, the prince might acquire honour, the nobility, in sharing his dangers, might attach themselves to his person, and all the restless spirits find occupation for their inquietude. This injunction may be used in palliation of those military exploits, in which Henry was afterwards so eminently conspicuous. The injunctions of an expiring parent should have a powerful effect upon the conduct of a son: but, still, they have not sufficient weight, on our minds, to call forth an approval of those reiterated plaudits, given by the historians of this prince. We have allowed Henry the full measure of our praise, for his deportment as a magistrate: we shall withhold them for his conduct as a warrior; and, only the barbarism of the age in which he lived, restrains us from throwing into the opposite scale, a weight of censure, which would overbalance his domestic virtues.

Charles the sixth, then on the throne of France, was afflicted with occasional attacks of mental derangement, which rendered him incapable of pursuing any steady plan of public government. The administration of affairs was disputed by the dukes of Orleans and Burgundy: but, the former having been assassinated by order of his rival, the son of the murdered prince sought revenge; and thus, the city of Paris was, for a long time, a deplorable scene of violence and blood. The advantage which might be made of these confusions, was easily perceived in England; and, according to the maxims too often prevailing amongst nations, it was determined to use the favourable opportunity

of regaining all those provinces which his ancestors had possessed in France, and, as circumstances might direct, of renewing the claim made by Edward the third to the French crown.

1415. Henry put to sea, and landed at Harfleur, with an army of thirty-thousand men; mostly archers. He immediately began the siege of that place; and, enraged at a breach of faith in the governor, who had agreed to surrender on a certain day, if succours should not arrive, he ordered a general assault, took the town by storm, and put all the garrison to the sword; except some gentlemen, whom the victorious army were induced to spare, in hopes of reaping profit by their ransom.

The fatigues of the siege, with the unusual heat of the season, had severely wasted the English army. Henry could not, therefore, enter on any further enterprise, and wished to return to England: but, as he had dismissed his transports, he lay under a necessity of going by land to Calais; from which place, he proposed to embark. A French army, of fifty-thousand men, now watched his motions; and, after he had passed the small river of Ternois, at Blangi, he was surprised to observe, from the heights, this powerful enemy, drawn up in the plains of Agincourt; and so posted, that it was impossible for him to proceed on his march, without hazarding an engagement. So great was the superiority of the French, in number, that David Gam, a Welsh captain, who had been sent out to reconnoitre them, brought back word, in the homely style of his country, that there was enough to be killed, enough to be taken prisoners, and enough to run away. Henry's situation was similar to that of Edward at Crecy, and of the Black Prince at Poictiers. He was opposed to an army above four times his number; yet no battle was ever more fatal to France than the battle of Agincourt. Of the French forces, ten-thousand were killed, and fourteen-thousand taken prisoners—nearly half their entire army, and more than double the number that opposed them! The English lost but forty slain!

The trifling resources of all the European princes, in those days, prevented them from prosecuting a war, with uninterrupted vigour; and Henry, yielding to necessity, concluded a truce with the enemy, and returned into England.

1418. Still distracted by the furious ambition of her royal princes, France was, at this time, badly prepared to resist invasion. Henry, now aiming at the crown of that

country, landed, with a numerous army, in Normandy; and was favoured equally by his fortune in the field, and the events which occurred amongst the French. The duke of Burgundy having been murdered, the young dauphin, heir apparent of the crown, was not exempted from the imputation of having shared in the crime; though, from his extreme youth, it is probable he was innocent of the charge. The son of that prince thought himself bound, by every tie of honour and of duty, to revenge the murder of his father. The subjection to a foreign enemy, the expulsion of the lawful heir, the slavery of the kingdom, appeared but small evils, if they led to the gratification of his feelings. By the intrigues, therefore, of the young duke, a treaty was concluded at Troye; the principal articles of which, were, that Henry should espouse the princess Catherine, the French king's daughter; that Charles, during his lifetime, should enjoy the title and dignities of king of France; that Henry should be declared and acknowledged heir of the monarchy, and be intrusted with the present administration of the government; that that kingdom should pass to his heirs general; that France and England should, for ever, be united under one crown; and that Henry should join his arms to those of king Charles and the duke of Burgundy, in order to subdue the adherents of Charles, the pretended dauphin. Such was the tenor of this astonishing treaty, which transferred the crown of France to a stranger: a treaty, which, as nothing but the most violent animosity could dictate, so nothing but the sword could carry into execution. In a few days after, he was married to the princess Catherine: he carried his father-in-law to Paris; got possession of that capital, and obtained, from the French parliament, a ratification of the treaty. At length, having succeeded in reducing many of the principal towns which had held out against the royal authority, he appointed his uncle, the duke of Exeter, governor of Paris, and passed over into England, for the purpose of raising supplies.

1422. He had now returned to the French capital; having overcome every difficulty: his queen had a son, who was called by his father's name, and was joyfully regarded, both at Paris and London, as the future heir of both monarchies. But the earthly glory of the conqueror, when it had nearly reached the summit, was stopped short by the hand of death, and all his mighty projects glided from his view

He died in the thirty-fourth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign.

He left the regency of France to his next brother, the duke of Bedford; that of England, to his younger, the duke of Gloucester; and the care of his son's person to the earl of Warwick.

The exterior figure and deportment of Henry were engaging. His stature was rather above the middle size: his countenance beautiful: his limbs were slender, but full of vigour; and he excelled in all the warlike and manly exercises of the age.

Catherine of France, Henry's widow, married, soon after his death, a Welsh gentleman, sir Owen Tudor, (said to have been descended from the ancient princes of his country) and bore him two sons; Edmund and Jasper: of whom, the eldest was created earl of Richmond; the second, earl of Pembroke.

The fixed revenue of the crown during this reign, amounted only to fifty-five-thousand pounds, and the ordinary expenses of government to fifty-two-thousand; so that the king had, yearly, for the support of his household, for embassies, and other contingencies, no more than three-thousand pounds.

From the earliest times, until the reign of Edward the third, the denomination of money had not been altered. A pound sterling was still a pound troy; (about three pounds of the present money;) hence, the letter *L* is used to denote a pound of money: which character is deducible either from the Latin, *libra*, or the French, *livre*—words used in those languages to denote either a pound in *weight* or a pound in *money*. Through necessity, Edward coined twenty-five shillings out of a pound troy: but Henry carried the imposition still further; and made thirty shillings from the same quantity. His revenue, therefore, was equal to one-hundred-and-ten-thousand pounds of the present money; and, by the price of provisions in his time, equivalent to more than three-hundred-and-thirty-thousand.*

None of the princes of the house of Lancaster ventured to impose taxes without the consent of parliament. Their doubtful, or bad title, became, so far, advantageous to the state; as, thereby, a precedent was established, which could not afterwards, with impunity, be infringed; even by princes of more absolute disposition.

* In the year 1816, after several intermediate changes, the standard was reduced to 66 shillings from a pound of silver.

HENRY THE SIXTH.

1422—1461.

The British parliament, without paying any regard to the will of the late king, assumed the power of giving a new arrangement to the whole government. Not approving of the title of regent with respect to England, they nominated the duke of Bedford protector of the kingdom; a title supposed to imply less authority: they invested the duke of Gloucester with the same dignity, during the absence of his brother; and, in order to limit the power of both these princes, appointed a council, without whose advice and approbation, no measure of importance could be determined.

The power of administration in France, vested in Henry the fifth, by the treaty of Troye, was still continued to his heir, though yet an infant; and the duke of Bedford now managed the affairs of that kingdom. The experience, the prudence, and valour, of this nobleman, qualified him for this high office; and enabled him to maintain union amongst his friends, and gain the confidence of his enemies. He was at the head of armies inured to victory: he was seconded by the most renowned generals of the age—the earls of Somerset, Warwick, Salisbury, Suffolk, and Arundel; Sir John Talbot, and Sir John Fastolfe. But all these advantages were not sufficient to counterbalance the difficulties by which he was surrounded. Every political arrangement must yield to the changes produced by time. Many of the French nobility, upon whom the regent had most firmly relied, now felt their interest in supporting the opposite cause; and war again resounded over France.

The city of Orleans was so situated between the provinces commanded by Henry and those possessed by Charles, that it opened an easy entrance into either; and as the duke of Bedford intended to make a great effort to penetrate into the south of France, he began with this place, now become the most important in the kingdom. The eyes of all Europe were turned towards a scene, where it was supposed that the French were to make their last stand for the independence of their monarchy. The earl of Salisbury approached with an army of ten-thousand men, and commenced his operations by an attack upon the outworks; in which affair, he was killed by a cannon-ball. The English, also, had several pieces of artillery in their camp: the first that were found of importance at any siege in Europe. The earl

of Suffolk, upon whom the command devolved, trusted, for success, more to famine than to force, and converted the siege into a blockade. Great scarcity was soon felt within the city. Charles not only gave up the place for lost, but began to entertain a very dismal prospect with regard to the general state of his affairs. But it was fortunate for this good prince, that, as he lay under the dominion of the fair sex, the women whom he consulted had the spirit to support his sinking resolutions. Mary of Anjou, his queen, in particular, exerted herself to kindle in his breast the patriot flame. Love was more powerful than ambition—he resolved rather to perish with honour in the midst of his friends, than yield ingloriously to the frowns of fortune.

1429. The determination which Charles had made in compliance with his queen, was soon assisted by a female of a very different character; who gave rise to one of the most extraordinary revolutions to be found in history. In the village of Domremy, on the borders of Lorraine, there lived a country girl, twenty-seven years of age, called Joan d'Arc. She was a servant in a small inn; in which station, she was accustomed to tend the horses of the guests, to ride them, without a saddle, to the watering place, and to perform other offices, which, in well-frequented inns, fall to the share of men-servants. This girl was of an irreproachable life, and, hitherto, was not remarked for any singularity; probably because she had met with no occasion to excite her genius. It is easy to imagine, that the present situation of the country was an interesting subject of discourse, even to persons of the lowest rank; and that the peculiar character of Charles, so strongly inclined to friendship and the tender passions, would naturally render him the hero of that sex, whose generous minds know no bounds in their affections. The siege of Orleans, the great distress of the garrison and the inhabitants, the importance of saving the city and its brave defenders, had attracted universal attention; and Joan, inflamed by the general excitement, was seized with a wild desire of relieving the miseries of her sovereign. Her inexperienced mind, employed day and night on this favourite object, mistook the impulse of enthusiasm for heavenly inspiration; and she fancied that she saw visions, and heard voices, exhorting her to expel the invaders of her country. She went to the governor of the district, informed him of her inspirations and intentions; and conjured him not to neglect the voice of God, which spoke through her, but to

second those revelations, which impelled her to this glorious enterprise. It is uncertain, whether the governor had discernment sufficient to perceive, that a great effect might be produced on the vulgar, by an instrument so uncommon; or, that he was, himself, a convert to this visionary. He adopted, however, the scheme of Joan, and gave her some attendants, who conducted her to the French court at Chinon.

The more the king and his ministers were determined to profit by the illusion, the more scruples they pretended. An assembly of grave theologians examined Joan's mission, and pronounced it undoubted and supernatural. She was sent to the parliament, then residing at Poictiers, and was interrogated before that assembly. The presidents and the counsellors, who came, persuaded of her imposture, went away convinced of her inspiration; and a ray of hope soon illumined the minds of those, who, before, were enveloped in despair.

Joan was now armed cap-a-pee, was mounted on horseback, and, in that martial habiliment, was shown to the people. Her dexterity in managing her steed, though acquired in her old employment, was regarded as a new proof of her mission: her former occupation was even denied,—she was no longer the servant of an inn. She was converted into a shepherdess; and, to render her still more interesting, nearly ten years were subtracted from her age.

When the engine was thus dressed up in full splendour, it was determined to try its force against the enemy. Joan was sent to Blois, where a large convoy was prepared for the support of Orleans, and an army of ten-thousand men assembled to escort it. She ordered all the soldiers to confess their sins, before they set out; banished from the camp all women of bad fame; and insisted, in right of her prophetic mission, that the convoy should enter Orleans, by the direct road, from the side of Beausse. But the count of Dunois, an able general, unwilling to relinquish the rules of the military art, ordered that it should approach by the *other* side of the river; where, he knew, was stationed the weakest part of the English army.

The powerful influence of superstition on the minds of the besiegers, became evident. When the convoy approached the river, a sally was made by the garrison, on the side of Beausse, to prevent the English general from sending any detachment to the other side: the provisions were then peaceably embarked in boats, sent out by the inhabitants: Joan covered with her troops the embarkation·

Suffolk did not venture to attack her; and the French general returned with his army in safety to Blois. The Maid of Orleans, (by which name this female is generally known) entered the town, arrayed in her military garb, displaying a consecrated standard, and was received by all the inhabitants as a celestial deliverer. They now believed, that, under her sacred influence, they were invincible; and Dunois himself, perceiving so wonderful an alteration, both in friends and enemies, consented that the next convoy, which was expected in a few days, should enter by the side of Beausse.—The convoy approaches—no sign of resistance appears—the wagons and troops pass through the redoubts, without interruption—and there remain amongst the besiegers a dead silence and astonishment!

We have now related the most interesting scenes in which this remarkable character so conspicuously appeared. The blockading army, after her entrance into the city, did not long remain before its walls; and, from this time, the affairs of the English gradually declined in France. The duke of Bedford, however, displayed pre-eminent abilities in bearing up against the misfortunes of the army; but his death, which happened in about six years from the commencement of these reverses, hastened the evacuation of the French dominions. That amiable character by which he had long been distinguished, was, unhappily, sullied by an atrocious act of barbarism. The Maid of Orleans, had, by the chances of war, fallen into his hands; and this admirable heroine, to whom, as an elegant writer has observed, the more generous superstition of the ancients would have erected altars, was, on pretence of heresy and magic, delivered to the flames; and expiated, by that dreadful punishment, the signal services which she had rendered to her prince and her native country.

The English were not finally subdued in France until the year 1450; and, even then, neither a truce nor a peace was concluded: nor can it be said that they were overthrown by the strength of their opponents; as their retreat proceeded from a gradual diminution in their numbers, which could not be recruited.

Henry's incapacity for government appeared every day in a fuller light, and his title to the British crown was now disputed. All the males of the house of Mortimer were extinct; but Anne, sister of the last earl of Marche, having been espoused by the earl of Cambridge, beheaded in the reign of Henry the fifth, had transmitted her latent, though

not forgotten, claim, to her son, Richard, duke of York. This prince, descended from Philippa, only daughter of the duke of Clarence, second son of Edward the third, stood plainly in the order of succession before the king; who derived his descent from the duke of Lancaster, third son of that monarch. Thus, the English were to pay the severe, though late penalty, of their turbulence against Richard the second; and of violating, without just reason, the lineal succession of their monarchs. The duke was seconded by many of the most powerful nobles in the kingdom; and, amongst the number, by the celebrated Richard Nevil, earl of Warwick, commonly known by the appellation of King-maker.

1455. A sanguinary engagement between the rival parties, took place at St. Albans, where the Yorkists had the advantage; upwards of five-thousand of their enemies having been left dead upon the field. There, the first blood was spilled, in that fatal quarrel; which continued for thirty years; was signalized by twelve pitched battles; caused the deaths of eighty princes of the blood, and almost entirely annihilated the ancient nobility of England.

After alternate battles and negotiations, the parliament declared the title of the duke of York to be certain and indefeasible; but, in consideration that Henry had so long enjoyed the crown, without dispute, they determined that he should continue in possession of the title and dignity for the remainder of his life, and that the administration of the government should, immediately, be vested in the duke.

This prince, however, did not long survive the settlement. Margaret, the queen of England, still kept the field, with a powerful army; and, in a severe engagement, fought at Wakefield, in which she herself commanded, the duke of York was killed, and his army defeated. But the affairs of the Yorkists were soon retrieved by the bravery of Edward, eldest son of the deceased duke; who entered London, amidst the acclamations of the citizens, and was, by the voice of the people, called to the throne, under the title of Edward the fourth.

Thus, ended, the reign of Henry; who, whilst in his cradle, had been proclaimed king both of England and France:—a prince who should be pitied for his misfortunes as he suffered for the usurpation of another.

Happily for England, her foreign dominions, except Calais and a few other places, were now lost. From this time, her maritime adventures were better understood, and more

closely pursued; and, as soon as she had rested from her civil wars, she began suddenly to flourish; and became much more considerable in Europe, than when her princes were possessed of a larger territory, and her councils distracted by foreign interests.

The historian employed by Henry the sixth, was Thomas Walsingham. The most remarkable law passed in this reign, was for the due election of members of parliament, in counties: the electors were limited to freeholders who possessed forty shillings a year, free from all burthen, within the county for which the members were to be returned.

CHAPTER XII.

EDWARD THE FOURTH.

1461—1483.

THERE is no part of English history, since the conquest, so obscure, and inconsistent, as that of the wars between the two houses of York and Lancaster. Some events of the utmost importance, in which nearly all the historians of those days agree, are contradicted by records; and it is remarkable, that this uncertainty occurs just on the eve of the restoration of Letters. All we can distinguish, through the deep cloud which covers the transactions of that age, is a scene of horror and bloodshed, savage manners, arbitrary executions, and treacherous, dishonourable conduct, in all parties. The chief certainty, in this and in the preceding reign, arises, either from public documents, or the notice taken of particular occurrences by the French writers. It is highly probable, that the scarcity of English authors, during this period, proceeded from the destruction of the convents, which had been almost the sole repositories of learning; as the nobility and gentry were yet in a state of profound ignorance. They were so much engaged in the sanguinary contests of the field, that they had no leisure to attend to the peaceable studies of the closet.

Young Edward, in the very commencement of his reign, gave symptoms of that cruelty which afterwards so strongly marked the course of his turbulent career. A tradesman in London, who had above his door the sign of the crown,

having jocosely said that he would make his son *heir to the crown*, this harmless pleasantry was interpreted to have been spoken in derision of the king's assumed title; and he was, for this implied offence, condemned and executed. Such an act of tyranny was a suitable prelude to the scenes which followed. The scaffold and the field incessantly streamed with blood, shed in the quarrel between the two rival families. The adherents of the house of Lancaster chose the red rose, as the symbol of their party: those of York, assumed the white; and thus, these civil wars were known over Europe by the name of the quarrel between the Two Roses.

Queen Margaret being still in the field with a numerous army, the king, accompanied by the earl of Warwick, set out with a body of forty-thousand men, to give her battle. A sanguinary engagement shortly ensued: the Lancastrians were defeated; and the queen, with the unfortunate Henry, fled for safety into Scotland. The good effects of this victory upon the affairs of Edward, were apparent, in the first parliament summoned for the purpose of settling the government. The members no longer hesitated between the two families; they recognised his title, through the house of Mortimer; and declared that he was entitled to the throne from the moment of his father's death.

In the following spring, the nation was again visited by the horrors of war. The French king, induced from motives of policy to support the weaker party, gave Margaret a body of two-thousand men; with which, assisted by a numerous train of adventurers from Scotland, and many partisans of the house of Lancaster, this indefatigable woman again appealed to arms. However, in two engagements which occurred, at Hedgley-more and Hexham, her forces were completely overthrown. She herself escaped into Flanders; but the weak and unhappy Henry was made prisoner, and conveyed to the Tower of London.

The cruel and unrelenting spirit of Edward, though inured to the ferocity of civil wars, was, at the same time, extremely devoted to the softer passions: which, without mitigating the severity of his temper, maintained over him a powerful influence, and shared his attachment with the pursuits of ambition and the thirst for military glory But, as it is difficult to reduce the inclinations within strict bounds of propriety, his amorous temper led him into an imprudence, fatal to his future repose, and to the stability of his throne.

Sir John Gray of Groby having been killed in battle, fighting on the side of Lancaster, his widow, Elizabeth, had gone to reside with her father, sir Richard Wideville, at his seat of Grafton, in Northamptonshire. The king went accidentally to the house, after a hunting party; and, as the occasion seemed favourable for obtaining some grace from this gallant monarch, the young widow, remarkable for the elegance of her person, threw herself at his feet, and, with tears, entreated him to have pity on her distressed and impoverished children. Edward was strongly affected by the sight of so much beauty in affliction: through the imperceptible agency of compassion, love stole insensibly into his heart; and her sorrow, so becoming a virtuous matron, made his esteem quickly correspond to his affection. With assurance of favour, he raised the lovely mourner from the ground: every moment, by the conversation of the amiable object, he found his passion rapidly increase; and was soon reduced to become a suppliant at her feet. But, all the endearments, caresses, and importunities, of the young and fascinating Edward, failed, against her rigid and inflexible virtue. Carried, at last, beyond all bounds of reason, he offered to share his throne, as well as heart, with a woman, whose beauty of person, and dignity of character, seemed so well to entitle her to both. Their marriage was privately celebrated at Grafton; and the secret, for a while, carefully concealed. No one could suspect that so libertine a prince would sacrifice so much to a romantic passion; indeed, there were strong reasons which rendered this union in the highest degree imprudent and dangerous.

Edward soon felt the effects of his precipitate alliance. Not long before, he had commissioned the earl of Warwick, to request the hand of Bona of Savoy, sister to the queen of France; to which proposal, through the address of that nobleman, she had acceded. When, therefore, the inconsiderate love-match with the lady Elizabeth came to light, the high spirited Warwick, delicately susceptible of affront, soon determined to seek revenge. Having formed a confederacy with the duke of Clarence, (the king's eldest brother,) and several more of the chief nobility, the earl went over to the continent. There, he had an interview with queen Margaret; and a plan of invasion was soon arranged, under the auspices of the king of France; who assisted them with an army. Warwick with his followers landed at Dartmouth, whilst the king was in

1470.

the north, suppressing an insurrection. The scene which ensued, is more like the fiction of romance, than an actual historical event. In eleven days from the landing of this celebrated nobleman, and without even a sword having been drawn, Edward was expelled from the kingdom; and Henry the sixth was released from the gloomy walls of his prison, and placed upon the throne.

But the ascendency of the Lancastrians was of short continuance. Edward, having obtained an armament from the duke of Burgundy, landed, in the ensuing spring, at Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, and marched with rapidity towards London. In a sanguinary and well contested action, fought at Barnet, near the capital, the reigning party was defeated; and Warwick himself, after combating on foot, fell gloriously amidst the thickest of his enemies. The intrepid Margaret landed on the same day at Weymouth, with her son, a promising young prince of about eighteen years of age, supported by a small body of French troops; and, being joined by several of the English nobility, she pushed forward as far as Teukesbury. Here, the expeditious Edward soon attacked her: the Lancastrians were totally overthrown, and Margaret and her son taken prisoners. The king having asked him how he dared to invade his dominions, the youth answered, that he came thither to claim his just inheritance. For this reply, the barbarous and ungenerous Edward struck him on the face with his gauntlet; and his attendants, taking the blow as a signal for further violence, hurried the prince into the next apartment, where they despatched him with their daggers. Margaret was thrown into the Tower: king Henry died, a few days after the battle of Teukesbury; but the cause of his death is uncertain.

In the following year, the duke of Clarence, having given some new offence to his brother, was condemned to die; and being allowed to choose the manner of his death, was drowned, by his own desire, in a butt of Malmsey wine.

We shall now close the unpleasant scenes of this sanguinary period, by the death of the king himself. He died in the forty-second year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign; leaving, besides five daughters, Edward prince of Wales, his successor, then in his thirteenth year, and Richard duke of York, in his ninth.

It was in the seventh year of this reign, that the modern art of Printing was introduced into England, by Edward Caxton, of London. This enterprising citizen became ac-

quainted, in Germany, with that invaluable method of disseminating knowledge: where, it was invented, about thirty years before; causing an immense improvement on the mode of printing from wooden stereo-types, used in remote ages by the Chinese.

EDWARD THE FIFTH.

1483.

The late king had expressed a desire, that his brother. the duke of Gloucester should be invested with the regency, during the minority of the young prince. But Gloucester soon determined to usurp the throne, which it was his duty to protect. To the greatest abilities, this nobleman united an ambition, which no circumstances could deter, no principle of justice or generosity could restrain. The chief agents in his iniquitous and tragical proceedings, were, the duke of Buckingham, Dr. Shaw a clergyman, the mayor of London, (brother to the latter,) sir William Catesby, and sir James Tyrel. The queen dowager, alarmed at the sudden arrest of her brother the earl of Rivers, and her son sir Richard Gray, fled from the treachery of Gloucester, into the sanctuary of Westminster; taking with her the five princesses, and the duke of York. Menaces and entreaties were now used by the duke, to induce the queen to deliver up the latter; and she, finding that force would be used, if she persisted in a refusal, at last complied.

The council, without the consent of parliament, having appointed the duke of Gloucester protector of the government, he soon proceeded to remove all, who by connexion, attachment, or a sense of duty, stood opposed to his criminal design. Lords Rivers and Hastings, sir Richard Gray and sir Thomas Vaughan, were murdered by his order. He then openly aspired at the throne; and, by intimating the illegitimacy of the king, and his own superior right, through the means of sermons from the pulpit and popular harangues, he endeavoured to gain the suffrages of the people. But, failing in these, he threw aside almost the semblance of propriety; and, with no better title than the hired acclamations of a rabble, assumed the crown.

The fate of the unfortunate and helpless Edward and his brother, may easily be foreseen. They were murdered in the Tower, the place of their confinement; and their bodies buried there, at the foot of a flight of stairs.

RICHARD THE THIRD.

1483—1485.

The history of the world does not furnish a more flagrant instance of usurpation than that of Richard. Even were men disposed to pardon these violations of public right, the sense of private and domestic duty, which is not totally effaced in the most barbarous times, must have produced an abhorrence against so detestable a character; and have represented the murder of the young and innocent princes, his nephews, with whose protection he had been intrusted, in the most odious and terrific colours.

A friendship commenced in villany and blood, as was that of Richard and the duke of Buckingham, can never be cemented. No alliance can be lasting, unless sealed by the hand of virtue.—Jealousy, on the one side, and reiterated demands for past services, on the other, having soon caused an irreparable breach, the latter now endeavoured to drag Richard from his throne, and place on it the earl of Richmond.

This nobleman was grandson of sir Owen Tudor, and Catherine, widow of Henry the fifth; and was related, by blood, to the royal family, through a spurious branch, legitimated (with an express exclusion from the crown) by act of parliament. He was descended from the eldest illegitimate son of John of Gaunt, who was the fourth son of Edward the third. Having fled after the battle of Teukesbury, to seek refuge with the duke of Brittany, Henry the fourth, finding that all the Lancastrians regarded the earl as the object of their hopes, requested that the duke would deliver him into his hands: but the utmost he could obtain, was a promise, that he should not be allowed to depart from that prince's dominions; and he was, at this time, detained there in a kind of honourable custody.

Richard having soon received intelligence of the conspiracy, Buckingham was obliged to take the field. He was, however, shortly after, made prisoner, condemned, and executed.

1485. The earl of Richmond, with a retinue of about two-thousand persons, landed at Milford Haven, in Wales. The two rivals approached each other at Bosworth, near Leicester; Henry, at the head of six-thousand men; Richard, with an army of double that number. A dreadful conflict ensued. The sanguinary tyrant fought with a de-

gree of bravery worthy of a better cause: but his forces were defeated, and he himself, fighting to the last, perished by a fate too mild and honourable for his multiplied enormities. The soldiers, suddenly prompted by the joy of so great success, hailed their victorious leader as their king; and the acclamations of "Long live Henry the seventh" resounded through the field.

HENRY THE SEVENTH.

1485—1509.

Although the adherents of the house of Lancaster, had, for some time, considered Henry as the heir of that family, yet, even admitting that the pretensions of that line to the crown were well founded, which has always been a matter of dispute, this prince was not the true heir. Nothing indeed but the obstinacy of faction, could have induced the partisans of that house to adopt the earl of Richmond as their head; for, besides the many other objections to his title, his mother, through whom he derived his claim, was still alive, and evidently preceded him in the order of succession. Previous to Henry's return, it was stipulated, that he should espouse the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward the fourth, heir of the family of York, and, by right, entitled to the crown. But, unwilling that his claim should derive any additional force, from this union of the two branches, he carefully avoided the performance of the contract, until he had obtained a parliamentary acknowledgment of his own title; and, in the act of settlement, he studiously omitted the smallest mention of the princess.

A few days after the battle of Bosworth, Edward Plantagenet, earl of Warwick, son to the unfortunate duke of Clarence, who had been drowned in the butt of Malmsey, and nephew of Edward the fourth, was, by Henry's order, conveyed to the Tower. This gave rise to one of the most remarkable incidents of the present reign. A priest, named Richard Simon, possessed of considerable subtlety and boldness, had entertained the design of disturbing Henry's government, by raising a pretender to his crown. For this purpose, he selected a youth of fifteen years of age, named Lambert Simnel; who, being endowed with understanding above his years, and address above his condition, seemed well fitted to personate a prince, educated near a court. A rumour had been spread, and eagerly received, that Rich

ard, duke of York, had not been put to death by his uncle, but lay concealed in England. Simon, taking advantage of this report, at first instructed his pupil to assume the name of that prince; but, hearing, afterwards, a new rumour, that Warwick had escaped from his confinement, he changed his plan, and made Simnel personate the latter. It was, however, remarked, that Simnel was better informed in affairs relating to the royal family, and, particularly to the earl of Warwick, than he could be supposed to have been from one of Simon's condition; and it was thence conjectured, that persons of higher rank participated in the scheme: nor was the queen dowager herself exempted from suspicion; as she had been treated very unkindly by the king.

Simon, very properly judging that the artifice would not bear a close inspection, carried his pupil to Ireland; where the inhabitants were zealously attached to the house of York. Warwick's father had been chief governor in that island, and for his memory they bore an affectionate regard. Here, his tale was implicitly believed. The earl of Kildare, who was then governor, espoused his cause; and, by the unanimous voice of the people, he was crowned in the castle of Dublin, under the title of Edward the sixth.

When Henry received intelligence of this extraordinary event, he ordered that Warwick should be taken from the Tower, and exposed to public view. This was accordingly done, and had the desired effect in England; but, in Ireland, the delusion still continued.

The dutchess of Burgundy, sister of Edward the fourth, pleased with an opportunity of disturbing the repose of Henry, despatched over to Ireland a body of two-thousand veteran Germans. These, united with the Irish forces, set sail, under the command of the earl of Lincoln, accompanied by the newly created king, and landed at Foudrey in Lancashire. Thence, they advanced as far as Stoke in Nottinghamshire; where they were encountered by the royal forces, and completely routed, with the loss of their leader and four-thousand of the common men. Simnel himself was taken prisoner; but, being too contemptible to excite either apprehension or resentment, he was pardoned, made first a servant in the king's kitchen, and then advanced to the station of a falconer.

1491. France had latterly received an immense increase of territory. Normandy, Champagne, Anjou, Dauphiny, Guienne, Provence, and Burgundy, were, for some time past, united to her crown: the English were expelled

from all their continental possessions, except Calais; and Charles the eighth, the present monarch, this year succeeded in annexing also the dutchy of Brittany. It was evidently the interest of Henry to prevent this depression of an ally, and consequent elevation of a rival, already grown dangerous from the extent of his dominions. But, though he had neglected to render sufficient aid, when it might have been given with advantage, he resolved, at all events, to have a war with France; more intent upon gratifying his ruling passion, by draining the pockets of his subjects, than anxious for the deliverance of Brittany. He issued orders for levying a Benevolence; a species of taxation, not only pointedly denounced by the Great Charter, but, again forbidden, by act of parliament. Archbishop Morton, the chancellor, instructed the commissioners to employ a dilemma, by which every one might be included in its application. If the persons applied to for money lived *frugally*, they were told that their *parsimony* must have *enriched* them: if their establishments were *splendid*, they were supposed *opulent* from their *expenses*.

1492. In the autumn of this year, Henry landed at Calais with a large army; which he placed under the command of the duke of Bedford and the earl of Oxford It does not appear, however, that the soldiers were much harassed in their professional duty, as no military operations can be found on record; but we are informed, that in about a year after this politic and intimidating parade, negotiations for a peace commenced. A few days were sufficient for the purpose. The demands of Henry were wholly pecuniary; and the king of France, deeming the possession of Brittany an equivalent for any sum, readily agreed to the proposals. He engaged to pay Henry seven-hundred-and-forty-five-thousand crowns, and his heirs a yearly pension of twenty-five-thousand. Thus, the king, as is wittily remarked by Bacon, " made profit on his subjects for the war, and on his enemies for the peace."

Rather irritated than depressed by the failure of her past enterprises, the dutchess of Burgundy was determined at least to disturb a government which she was not able to subvert. The report of the escape of the young duke of York, brother of Edward the fifth, and his subsequent concealment, was renewed; and another instrument was now tutored for deceit.—One Warbec, of Tournay, had, in the reign of Edward the fourth, visited London, on business, and had there a son born to him Having had opportuni

ties of being known to the king, he prevailed with that prince, whose manners were very affable, to stand god-father for his son; to whom, he gave the name of Peter. Some years afterwards, Warbec, with his family, returned to Tournay; where young Peter (called, after the Flemish manner, Peterkin, or Perkin) did not long remain; but, by different accidents, was carried from place to place; by which means, his origin became unknown, and difficult to be traced by the most diligent inquiry. This Perkin Warbec having been represented to the dutchess as perfectly fitted to her purpose, she became desirous of seeing him, and found him even to exceed her expectations. Warbec, being properly instructed, was sent over to Ireland; where he was received as the true Plantagenet. Thence, by the invitation of the French king, he went to Paris; and was there treated with the highest marks of distinction, and visited by many of the most respectable nobility of England.

Henry now ordered that the bodies of the murdered princes should be searched for in the Tower; but they could not be discovered. However, by the vigorous measures which the king pursued against the abettors of this impostor, all men of respectability gradually forsook him.*

1495. Perkin, having collected about six-hundred outlaws and necessitous persons of all nations, appeared off the coast of Kent; from which, he was quickly repulsed. Soon afterwards, he made an attempt upon Ireland. But sir Edward Poynings, the governor, had put the affairs of that country in so good a posture, that he met with little success. He then bent his course to Scotland, and presented himself before James the fourth; who was so much deceived by his plausible accounts and elegant deportment, that he gave him in marriage lady Catherine Gordon; a relation of his own, equally eminent for her virtue and her beauty.

As there subsisted, at this time, a considerable jealousy between the courts of James and Henry, the former thought the opportunity favourable for giving disturbance to his neighbour; and, accordingly, having collected a number of his border-men, he made several inroads into England, ac-

* In the reign of Charles the second, the skeletons of those two young princes were found in the Tower; in the very spot assigned by More, Bacon, and other ancient authors, as the place of their interment. This fact should be taken as conclusive against the doubts, expressed by several writers of their having been murdered by their uncle.

companied by Warbec. But, in a short time, a truce was made between the two countries; and Perkin was obliged to retire from Scotland. Being joined by a few adherents, he chose, as a temporary retreat, the wild fastnesses of Ireland; and soon again issuing forth, landed in Cornwall. Having then, for the first time, assumed the title of Richard the fourth, king of England, he advanced into the country; and, when he arrived at Taunton, his army amounted to seven-thousand men. There, however, hearing that a large force was on its march to oppose him, he secretly withdrew to the sanctuary of Beaulieu in the New Forest. The rebels submitted to the king's mercy. Lady Catherine, wife to Perkin, fell into the hands of Henry; by whom she was treated with a degree of generosity and respect highly to his honour; Perkin, under a promise of pardon, surrendered; but, having entered into a conspiracy with the earl of Warwick, to effect their escape from the Tower, by murdering the lieutenant, Perkin was hanged at Tyburn, and the earl beheaded.

When Henry was freed from these alarming attacks, he employed himself in satiating his avaricious propensity, by repeated exactions upon his subjects; in which illegal proceedings, he was assisted chiefly by two lawyers, named Empson and Dudley.

1509. After a busy reign of nearly twenty-four years, Henry yielded to the ravages of a consumption; having ordered in his will, that restitution should be made to all whom he had injured. He was a prince equally conspicuous for his wisdom in the cabinet and his conduct in the field; and, notwithstanding his occasional errors, the history of his country can produce few monarchs who were less chargeable with the frailties of man. He left only one son, of his own name, who succeeded to the throne; and one daughter, Margaret, wife of James the fourth of Scotland.

It was in this reign, in the year 1492, that Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, sailed from Cadiz on that celebrated voyage which ended in the discovery of the Western World; and it was only by accident, that Henry had not a considerable share in the glory of this event. Columbus, after experiencing many repulses from the court of Spain, sent to England his brother, Bartholomew, to explain his projects to the king, and solicit his patronage and aid: but, in his passage, Bartholomew was taken by pirates; and though Henry, after his release, and subsequent arrival

at his court, gave an invitation to his brother to come over; it was too late. Columbus, having, in the mean time, obtained the countenance of Isabella, was supplied with a small fleet, and happily executed his enterprise. In six years afterwards, Henry employed Sebastian Cabot, of Bristol; who fell in with the main land of America, near the sixtieth degree of north latitude; and then, steering southward along the coast, discovered a large island, to which his sailors gave the name of Newfoundland. Changing his course to the west, he came to a smaller island, which he named St. John; and soon reached that part of the new continent now called Virginia.

Many salutary laws were now enacted. A humane alteration was made in the courts of justice; which allows to foreigners the privilege of a jury, half of whose number are also aliens. But, the most important law was one for permitting the nobility and gentry to break the ancient entails, and dispose of their estates; by which means, the great fortunes, and consequently the dangerous influence, of the barons, were diminished, and property more equally diffused amongst the commons. Several statutes were also made against engaging retainers, and giving them badges and liveries; a practice, by which they were, in a manner, enlisted under some great lord, and kept in readiness to assist him in all wars, insurrections, and tumults; and even to bear evidence for him, in courts of justice.

HENRY THE EIGHTH.

1509—1547.

Every advantage, that the safety of an extensive kingdom could demand, or the ambition of a youthful monarch could desire, was now united in the British crown:—tranquillity at home; peace with all abroad; an improving commerce, and a well stored treasury; a people affectionate to their prince; an undisputed title to the throne.

The conduct pursued by Henry in the commencement of his reign, served to heighten the favourable prepossessions of the public. Anxious to gain the applause, if not to increase the happiness, of his subjects, he dismissed from his council those men, who, in his father's reign, had been most obnoxious to the nation. Of the new ministers, the

most ambitious of royal favour, were, the earl of Surry, and Fox, bishop of Winchester. The populace were next gratified by the punishment of all who had lately assisted in plundering the kingdom; amongst whom, Empson and Dudley, as they had been the most active, so were they the most exposed to public hatred; and, having been brought to trial, they suffered an ignominious death.

Henry now deliberated concerning the completion of his marriage with a Spanish princess. His elder brother, Arthur, prince of Wales, had espoused Catherine of Arragon, a daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella, and sister of the celebrated Charles the fifth; Arthur being then about sixteen years of age, and Catherine eighteen. But, as Arthur died in a few months afterwards, the king, unwilling to restore the dowry, compelled his second son, Henry, then only twelve years of age, to be contracted to her; having first received the concurrence of the pope. Though, however, this contract had been made by the desire of his father, yet their disparity of years, and her former marriage with his brother, caused him for a while to hesitate. Her known virtue, however, the sweetness of her temper, the affection which she bore him, the political advantages resulting from the alliance, together with the approbation of his council, determined him, improperly, to consummate the union.

He was scarcely settled on his throne, when he began to enter warmly into the affairs of the continental princes. Instigated by the over-reaching intrigues of Ferdinand, and a desire to gain the favour of the pope, he invaded France; but, after defeating the enemy in an engagement called the battle of the Spurs, because, in that action, the French made more use of their spurs than of their swords, his army was reimbarked. In the mean time, Scotland, always the assailant of England, when England made war upon France, renewed her depredations.

An able minister was now required; and that minister was found in the person of Thomas Wolsey, dean of Lincoln. This extraordinary man, born at Ipswich in Suffolk, had received a classical education, and being endowed with an excellent capacity, was admitted as tutor into the family of the marquis of Dorset; where, he gained the friendship of his patron. He was afterwards recommended as chaplain to the late king; who esteemed him highly for his diligence and address: and now, neither his own years, though more than forty, nor his clerical profession, were any re-

straint upon himself; nor did he check, by any ill-timed severity, the occasional pleasures of his new master.

1513. The summer of this year was employed chiefly in preparations for the war with France; which, after many military operations, presenting no interest at the present day, was concluded by a treaty. Henry was contented by receiving a million of crowns, due, by stipulation, to his father and himself; Lewis, by a contract of marriage with the princess Mary, sister to the British king: the one aged fifty-four—the other, but seventeen.

The success which, in his absence, had attended the arms of Henry, in the North, was much more decisive. In a great battle fought in the field of Flouden, near the Cheviot Hills, the earl of Surry gained a memorable victory. The king of Scotland, brother-in-law of Henry, and most of his principal nobility, were there killed; and a peace with that country was soon concluded.

Wolsey, whom the king had promoted to the see of Lincoln, was now made archbishop of York; enjoying, at the same time, the emoluments of many other ecclesiastical establishments. The pope, observing his great influence over the king, by which he wished to profit, advanced him to the high dignities of cardinal and legate; and never did any churchman carry the state and splendour of that character to a more exorbitant height. His income is said to have been equal to the king's; and he spent it in a not less royal manner. The walls of his palace were covered with cloth of gold, or cloth of silver. His plate was of massy gold. His train consisted of eight-hundred servants; of whom, many were knights and gentlemen, desirous of his patronage. Thus, did the minister of a religion, which demands only the modest exterior of simplicity, rival the puerile magnificence of an eastern despot. But, neither the income of these preferments, nor the pageantry of these establishments, could satiate his ambition. Another step was yet ungained. The papal chair now occupied his thoughts; and to the attainment of this last object of his desire, he sacrificed the faith of treaties, and the tranquillity of Europe. Always watching the varying revolutions of the political machine, he attached himself to that movement which tended towards the last goal of his earthly view; and, by sometimes favouring the intrigues of one monarch, sometimes those of another, he involved his country in foreign broils, equally uninteresting to her feelings, and injurious to her welfare. Let us, however, whilst we condemn,

allow a due portion of extenuation. Francis the first, then monarch of the French, and Charles the fifth, a prince who swayed at once the powerful sceptres of Germany and Spain, and into whose treasury were poured the riches of the western world—these did not withhold their flattery and their countenance, but courted the aspiring cardinal with the fawnings of hypocrisy, and encouraged the ardency of his ambition, by the profusion of their bounties, their promises, and familiarities.

1521. The extensive field in which the authority of the Roman pontiff had been so freely practised, began at this time, to contract its limits. From the diffusion of polemical essays, caused by the use of printing, a new era had arisen; and Martin Luther, an Augustin friar, professor in the university of Wittemberg, was, by that means, enabled to oppose, with unusual effect, the influence of the pope, and the prevailing doctrine; and, hence proceeded that important change, called the Reformation. The Lutheran princes of Germany, finding that liberty of conscience was denied them, combined for their own defence; and, as they *protested* against the votes passed in the imperial diet, they received the appellation of *protestants*. To the arguments of Luther, Henry replied in Latin, with considerable ability: as a return for which voluntary service, the pope conferred upon him the title of Defender of the Faith; an appellation still used by his successors: though they have rejected the doctrines by which it was obtained, and those which the work of Henry had condemned, are now the fundamental principles of the Church of England.

Of the arbitrary measures pursued by the British monarchs, in those days, we can form some idea, by the following instance. When Henry heard that the commons were reluctant in granting him a supply of money, he was so provoked, that he sent for Edward Montague, one of the members, who had considerable influence; to whom, he cried out: "Ho! man! will they not suffer my bill to pass?" And laying his hand on Montague's head, who was then on his knees before him, as was customary: "Get my bill passed by to-morrow; or else, to-morrow, this head of yours shall be off." Next day the bill was passed.

1527. The inauspicious marriage with Catherine, originally contracted against his will, but afterwards consummated with deliberation, the king, though she had given him an heiress, now endeavoured to dissolve. There

feelings of conscience, which once produced a hesitation, had been quelled; but, at this time, it seems, after a lapse of nearly twenty years, they revived. There lately had appeared at court a young lady, named Anne Boleyn, who was created maid of honour to the queen. This female, whose grandeur and misfortunes have rendered her so celebrated, was daughter of sir Thomas Boleyn, grand-daughter of the duke of Norfolk, and related to all the principal nobility of the kingdom; and was not less remarkable for the graces of her person, than the accomplishments of her mind. She soon became the object of his admiration; but, finding that her virtue was unconquerable, he resolved to raise her to the throne; and applied to the pope for a divorce from Catherine. Wearied, however, by the frequent postponements of the Roman pontiff, Henry, at length, obtained from the English bishops a dissolution of his marriage, after which he espoused his favourite.

During the various negotiations with the pope, relating to the divorce, Wolsey had practised his accustomed dissimulation; and the king now determined that the ruin of the cardinal should be as rapid as his elevation. He accordingly removed him from the situation of chancellor; and in his place appointed sir Thomas More: the first person that was regularly qualified for that office, and who, besides the ornaments of literature, possessed the highest degree of political capacity and virtue. Wolsey was ordered to depart from his palace in London: [now called Whitehall:] his furniture and plate were converted to the king's use: he was convicted in the Star Chamber, and abandoned to all the rigour of the parliament. It was voted, that he was out of the king's protection: that his lands and goods were forfeited; and that his person might be committed to custody. He was, however, pardoned for the present; and, after being compelled to move from one place to another, took up his residence at Cawood, in Yorkshire. At length, he was, by order of the king, arrested, on a charge of high treason; and, on his way to London, being attacked by a severe illness, was obliged to stop at Leicester Abbey; where, he shortly afterwards expired. On his death bed, he exclaimed, "Had I but served God, as diligently as I have served the king, he would not have deserted me in my grey hairs."

1533. In the autumn of this year, the new queen had a daughter, called Elizabeth; who afterwards swayed the sceptre with so much renown. Parliament confirmed

the ecclesiastical sentence which had annulled the former marriage: that with Anne was ratified: Mary, the daughter of Catherine, was excluded from the succession: the crown was appointed to descend to the issue of this marriage; and an oath enjoined to be taken in favour of the new order of inheritance. Fisher, bishop of Rochester, and sir Thomas More, were the only persons of rank who expressed a doubt of its legality, and were both committed to the Tower.

But the persecution of these accomplished men, did not cease with imprisonment. Henry having now thrown off all dependence on the see of Rome, and resolved to abolish entirely the papal authority in England; and the parliament having conferred on him a new title,—"Supreme head, on earth, of the Church of England," they were, for refusing to acknowledge this supremacy, most unjustly, condemned, and taken to the block. They both suffered with unshaken fortitude; and More preserved, to the very last, his accustomed cheerfulness, and even his pleasantry. When he was mounting the scaffold, he said to a person near him, 'Friend, help me up, and, when I come down again, let me shift for myself." The executioner having asked his forgiveness, he granted his request; but told him, "You will never gain credit, by beheading me, my neck is so short." Then, laying his head upon the block, he bade the executioner wait till he put aside his beard; "For," said he, "it never committed treason."

In the year following, queen Catherine yielded to a lingering indisposition, in the fiftieth year of her age; having written, a little before she expired, an affectionate letter to the king. On the death of her rival, Anne, it is said, expressed her satisfaction in a manner much to be condemned. But the time was short, during which she was allowed to enjoy her exultation. The affection, which had subsisted so warmly under difficulties, had no sooner obtained possession of its object, than it languished from satiety. Henry's love was now transferred to another object—lady Jane Seymour, a maid of honour to the queen. The enemies which Anne had made by her attachment to the reformed religion, seized every opportunity of hastening her fall; and invented most scandalous slanders, to inflame the jealousy of the king. Of these charges, she appears to have been entirely innocent; yet, she had a certain gaiety, if not levity of manner, which gave weight to the accusations. Being brought to trial, she was condemned to be burned or beheaded, at the

king's pleasure. When this dreadful sentence was pronounced, she was not terrified; but, lifting up her hands to heaven, she exclaimed: "O, Father! O, Creator! thou who art the way, the truth, and the life, thou knowest that I have not deserved this death." She was soon beheaded; and her body was negligently thrown into a common chest made to hold arrows, and buried in the Tower.

The best evidence, perhaps, that can, at this time, be offered, to establish the innocence of Anne, is, that the very day after this bloody catastrophe, Henry was married to Jane Seymour.

A parliament was then called. The children of the two former marriages were declared illegitimate; and the crown was settled on the king's issue by Jane, or any subsequent wife. The progress of the reformation continued; being favoured by the king's disgust at the Roman pontiff, the extreme submission, to the royal will, of the parliament and the ecclesiastical convocations, and the general feeling of the nation. The reduction of the monastic establishments went forward with rapidity. In a little time, were suppressed, upwards of three-thousand of these institutions; more frequently the encouragers of idleness than of religion.

But, of all the instruments of superstition, none was so zealously destroyed, as the shrine of Thomas a Becket, commonly called St. Thomas of Canterbury. The devotion towards him had quite effaced, in that place, the adoration of the Deity. In a particular year, there was not offered at the altar of God a single penny, though at Becket's there was given above nine-hundred pounds.

It is evident, how obnoxious to Henry a saint of this reputation must have been; and how contrary to all his plans for degrading the authority of the court of Rome. He not only pillaged his rich shrine, but cited the saint himself to appear in court, condemned him as a traitor, ordered his name to be erased from the calendar, his bones to be burned, and his ashes to be thrown into the air.

1537. An event now occurred, which Henry had long and ardently desired—the birth of a son; who was called Edward, and created prince of Wales. Yet, this happiness was not without alloy; for, in two days afterwards, he lost his queen.

The business of dictating to the nation in matters of religion, was unceasing. What the king thought fit to order, the parliament was always ready to support; not only in spiritual, but in temporal, concerns: so that, it may be

justly said, that the power of Henry, through his entire reign, was absolute and undisputed. On the one hand, anxious to restrain the pope; on the other, to oppose his own opinions to the bold doctrines of the reformers; every day was pregnant with a royal mandate, and that mandate was most frequently in opposition to the dogmas of the preceding. Adherence to the old, or accordance with the new tenets, was equally fatal, because both were at variance with the king's: and those who preferred a glorious death to a disgraceful denial of their faith, were soon surrounded by consuming flames. A new law was often made, before the old, of a contrary tenor, was repealed. Both protestants and catholics were subject to the penalties of his various statutes; and it was not uncommon to see two persons burning in the same fire, for entertaining opinions that were directly opposite.

1539. Henry, however, was not so entirely engaged by the controversies of religion, as to prevent his looking out for another queen. By the advice of Cromwell, the primate, a marriage was concluded with Anne of Cleves, a princess of Germany. On her way to London, the king impatient to ascertain the correctness of the pictures of his new bride, went privately to Rochester, and saw her. He found her as large, indeed, and as tall as he could wish; but utterly devoid both of grace and beauty. The matter was still worse, when he found that she could speak no language except Dutch; of which he was entirely ignorant. He would have immediately sent her back, only that political motives restrained him: but a divorce was soon obtained; to which the queen contentedly submitted.

To this measure, he had been impelled, by two most powerful passions—aversion to one object, and inclination towards another. He had fixed his eyes on lady Catherine Howard, niece to the duke of Norfolk. Catherine and the duke, being violently inimical to Cromwell, because he favoured the protestant opinions, to which they were as strenuously opposed, urged a prosecution against that minister, on a charge of heresy and treason: and he fell an innocent victim to their malice. Ten days, only, elapsed, between the divorce from Anne, and the nuptials with lady Catherine; and only a few months had passed, when this new queen, destitute of every virtue, both now, and before her marriage, was taken to the scaffold.

Though Henry had been already deprived of five wives; by divorce, by the hand of nature, and by the executioner;

yet, in about a year and a half from this, he espoused his sixth wife, Catherine Par, widow of Lord Latimer. She was a virtuous woman, but was nearly losing her head, by her attachment to the reformation.

1544. Henry was now at war with both Scotland and France. He sent some troops to invade the former; who were disembarked at Leith, and then marched to Edinburgh; which city they plundered and burned; and he himself, with a large army, passed over into France: but, being deserted by his ally, the emperor, his operations were not productive of any material success; and a peace, in which Scotland was included, ended the campaign.

The hatred felt by the king, for some time past, towards the family of Howard, from the imputations against Anne Boleyn, and the bad conduct of Catherine, (both related to the duke of Norfolk) was now inflamed by a swelling in his limbs, as well as the declining of his health in general. The duke and his son, the earl of Surry, were brought to trial; and, upon charges which could not be substantiated, were found guilty. The earl was beheaded—the sudden death of the king prevented Norfolk from experiencing a similar fate.

He had retired to his seat at Croydon, in Surry; where he expired in the thirty-eighth year of his reign, and sixty sixth of his age. About a month before, he had made his will: in which, the previous destination of the parliament was confirmed, by leaving the crown, first to Edward, then, to Mary, and next, to Elizabeth.

During this reign, a great variety of laws were enacted; some beneficial, others injurious, to the community. Amongst the former, was one for depriving criminals of the privilege of sanctuary, when guilty of enormous of fences: amongst the latter, were many for fixing the prices of labour and provisions, and an act for regulating the in terest on money.

Until nearly the end of this reign, neither garden vege tables, nor small fruits, of any kind, were cultivated in Eng land; having, previously, been imported from Holland When queen Catherine wanted a sallad, she was obliged to send a messenger to that country.

Although there was now used in the army a sort of musket with a matchlock, called a caliver or harquebuse, the bow, which had been brought over by the Normans, was still a favourite and powerful weapon in the hands of the English soldier.

The casting of iron was introduced; cannon-balls of this metal were used in the place of stone; and a law was made concerning bankrupts.

Literature was patronized by the king and cardinal Wolsey. It was the latter who founded in Oxford the first chair for teaching Greek; which novelty rent that university into most violent factions. The students divided themselves into two parties—Greeks and Trojans; and sometimes fought with as great animosity as was displayed by those hostile nations, in their celebrated encounters. The institution at Oxford having excited the emulation of Cambridge, the rivalship was of important benefit, in correcting the pronunciation. Dramatic poetry was cultivated by Haywood; and Leland was an assiduous recorder of antiquities

EDWARD THE SIXTH.

1547—1553.

For the government of the kingdom, during the minority of his son, who now ascended the throne in his tenth year, the late king appointed sixteen executors and twelve counsellors; amongst whom, were, Cranmer, archbishop of Canterbury; Seymour, earl of Hertford, maternal uncle to the king; lord Seymour, brother to the earl; and sir Edward Montague, chief justice of the common pleas. Hertford, who was chosen protector, and created duke of Somerset, had long been regarded as a secret partisan of the reformers; and being now freed from restraint, he used every exertion to repress the old religion, and give encouragement to the new. He took care, that those intrusted with the education of the king, should be of his own creed; by which means, the protestant opinions of young Edward, already inculcated, were confirmed. Cranmer, though more moderate in his actions than the protector, was a sincere promoter of the reformation; and to him, was opposed, Gardiner, bishop of Winchester. At length, however, the principal ceremonies of the Roman Catholics were abolished; and a form of worship, very nearly resembling that of the present Church of England, and the protestant episcopal church of the United States, was established throughout the kingdom. But that scope which the reformers had given to their own judgment, in disputing the principles of the ancient religion, was not allowed to others; not only

the practice, but the very doctrine, of toleration, being then, to every sect, unknown.

Hostility with both Scotland and France was now so much a matter of course, that, on the commencement of a reign, we do not more regularly look for the account of a coronation; than a war. In compliance with the late king's desire, the protector demanded, that Mary Stuart, the young queen of Scots, whose mother was sister to Henry, should be married to the king of England: Arran, her guardian, as resolutely opposed the union: Somerset invaded her territory; and in a great engagement, called the battle of Pinkey, lord Arran was defeated, with the loss of ten-thousand men. As a last resource, Mary was sent over to France; where she was soon after contracted to the dauphin.

The victory at Pinkey was ascribed chiefly to the courage and ability of Warwick; a man alike conspicuous for his talents and his contempt of justice. Having by his intrigues induced the protector to exercise the royal authority against lord Seymour, this nobleman was, in consequence, tried, found guilty, and executed. Although Seymour was not entirely innocent of the charges of sedition, yet he was obnoxious to the earl of Warwick more as a rival, than as a disturber of tranquillity.

Somerset himself was next removed. Having grown extremely unpopular, by the part which he had taken in his brother's death, and his having pulled down several churches, to make room, or furnish materials for a palace in the Strand, Warwick was enabled to deprive him of his office, and to gain an entire ascendency in the government. He also obtained the titles and estates of the house of Percy; as sir Thomas, the heir of that family, had been attainted for rebellion. Thus, by the greatness of his acquisitions, the ruin, which he had been so earnestly preparing for the duke of Somerset, could now, without danger, be completed. The duke was brought to trial, upon a variety of charges. None, however, of a treasonable nature, could be proved; but, by his own confession, of having entertained a design against the lives of Warwick (lately created duke of Northumberland) and others, to which he had been impelled by repeated insults, he was convicted, and, accordingly, beheaded.

The princess Mary, a sister of Henry the eighth, had, on the decease of her husband, the king of France, espoused Charles Brandon, duke of Suffolk. From them, was descended lady Jane Gray; who, considering the opposite de-

crees which affected the titles of Henry's two daughters Mary and Elizabeth, had, certainly, fair pretensions to the crown. To that lady, Northumberland married his fourth son, lord Guildford Dudley; and then, by his artifices, so influenced the king, whose youth and declining health made him susceptible of every impression, that, by the royal letters patent, he set aside his sisters, and vested the succession in lady Jane.

The symptoms of Edward's complaint became every day more alarming: his physicians were removed: in their place, was substituted a feeble and ignorant woman; and in a short time the young prince yielded to the effects of the disorder or the medicines. He expired at Greenwich in the sixteenth year of his age and the seventh of his reign highly respected for his mildness of disposition, his love of equity, and application to business and literature.

The prospect of opening a communication with China, by a north-east passage, induced the English, at this period, to send out three vessels, under the command of sir Hugh Willoughby; who steered directly along the coast of Norway, and doubled the North Cape. But, having been separated in a storm, Willoughby, with two of the vessels, took refuge in a desert part of Russian Lapland; where he, and all his companions, were frozen to death. Chancelour, the captain of the other, having entered the White Sea, wintered at Archangel; and, although no foreign vessels had before visited that part of the globe, they were received there with the greatest hospitality. Being informed that it was part of a vast empire subject to the Czar of Muscovy, who resided in a great city twelve-hundred miles from Archangel, he instantly set out for the capital; which was Moscow. Here, he was treated with respect: and, thenceforward, an intercourse continued between England and Russia.

MARY.

553—1558.

The late attempt to violate the order of succession, by having the crown assigned to Jane, so fully displayed the ambition and injustice of Northumberland, that, when the people reflected on the long train of fraud and cruelty, by which that project had been conducted, they were moved by

indignation to exert themselves in opposition to such criminal enterprises.

Lady Jane is alike the object of our pity and admiration. Amiable, engaging, accomplished, she was worthy of the most exalted throne; as well by her acquirements, as by her reluctant acceptance of what she supposed to be another's right.

Orders were given by the council to proclaim Jane throughout the kingdom; but they were observed only near the court. No applause ensued: on account of the hatred, of all parties, towards Northumberland, they heard the proclamation with silence and concern, or with expressions of contempt. At this time, Mary was in Suffolk. There, having declared, that she would not alter the religious establishments of Edward, the nobility and gentry flocked with their adherents to her standard. The duke of Northumberland being deserted by the council and the army, lady Jane, after wearing the crown but ten days, returned to the more pleasing enjoyment of a private life. Northumberland was arrested by the earl of Arundel, and suffered the punishment which he so justly merited. Sentence of death was pronounced also against lady Jane Gray, and her husband, lord Guildford Dudley; but, without any intention, then, of putting it in execution. Indeed, their innocence and youth, neither having reached seventeen years, pleaded amply in their favour.

But the joy arising from the accession of the lawful heir, was succeeded by disgust. The queen soon displayed that malignity of disposition, which, throughout her reign, was so destructively exercised on her unhappy subjects. Bigotry, cruelty, tyranny, and revenge, were the strongest passions of her mind: and these were well depicted in the forbidding cast of her exterior. From her earliest years, she had imbibed an aversion to the reformed religion; and now, contrary to her solemn pledges, she reinstated in their sees all the most violent of her own party, and established throughout the kingdom the Roman Catholic form of worship. The prisons were crowded with the protestants: the flames burned with unexampled fierceness; and all who refused to subscribe to the religion of the queen, were sacrificed by the ferocity of persecution. Amongst those distinguished for intolerance, may be mentioned, Gardiner, bishop of Winchester, and Bonner, bishop of London. The prelates who suffered martyrdom, were Cranmer, Ridley, Latimer, Hooper, and Ferrar

1554. A marriage was this year solemnized between Mary and Philip the second of Spain, son of Charles the fifth. Her husband was little calculated to gain the affections of the nation; being as gloomy and tyrannical as the queen herself; and public feeling was soon displayed by an insurrection. This rebellion was, however, after much bloodshed, suppressed. But the vengeance of the queen reached even to the innocent. Lady Jane Gray and lord Guildford Dudley suffered for the actions of their friends. Notice was given this amiable and interesting couple to prepare for death; and they were soon relieved from their anxiety. On the scaffold, Lady Jane said, that her offence was not her laying her hands upon the crown, but her not rejecting it with sufficient constancy; and that she willingly received death, as the only satisfaction she could make to her injured country.

Soon afterwards, the duke of Suffolk, father of lady Jane, was taken to the block; where, he would have met with more compassion, had not his temerity caused his daughter's untimely end.

1555. England was now at war with France; and, by the negligence of government, Calais, the only place remaining to the British, on the continent, was taken by the duke of Guise after being in their possession above two-hundred years. This event sunk deep into the mind of Mary. She had long been in a delicate state of health: a variety of reflections now tormented her, and threw her into a fever; of which she died, in the sixth year of her reign, and the forty-third of her age. Cardinal Pole, descended from the royal family, who had, for a considerable time, laboured under bodily afflictions, expired on the same day.

At this time, the dwellings of people, even of considerable estate, were very meanly constructed. They were of plank, badly put together, and chimneys were almost unknown in England. The fire was kindled by the wall, and the smoke found its way through the roof, door, or windows. The furniture was appropriate. The people slept on straw pallets, having a log under their heads for a pillow; and almost every domestic utensil was of wood. Dinner and supper were taken about an hour earlier than at present: which were their only meals; breakfast not being then in use.

ELIZABETH.

1558—1603.

This princess, the daughter of Henry the eighth and Anne Boleyn, ascended the throne in her twenty-sixth year. Her principal ministers were, sir William Cecil, (afterwards lord Burleigh,) and sir Francis Walsingham; men of highly eminent abilities.

Although it was generally believed that she had embraced a religion opposite to that which now prevailed in England, yet, so much were men displeased with the conduct of the late queen, that, overlooking their theological disputes, they expressed unfeigned joy at the coronation of Elizabeth. When she was conducted through London, amidst the acclamations of the people, a boy, who personated Truth, descended from one of the triumphal arches, and presented her with a copy of the Bible. She received it with the most gracious deportment, placed it next her bosom, and declared, that amidst all the costly testimonies of their attachment which the citizens had on that day given her, this present was by far the most acceptable. In this manner, did the queen gain the affections of her subjects. Gracious and affable in public, she joined in their amusements, without departing from her dignity; and, notwithstanding the high and unbending tenor of her government, she acquired a popularity, greater than was ever attained by any other sovereign of England.

Though the queen, previous to her coronation, had made several alterations in the existing ceremonies of the church, yet she delayed the entire change until the meeting of parliament. Immediately on its assembling, the statutes of Edward the sixth with regard to religion were confirmed; many fresh innovations were made, and the Protestant religion was again established throughout the entire kingdom. It was not thought sufficient to prohibit, by severe penalties, the celebration of the Mass: the Roman Catholics, and all other sects, without distinction, were even compelled to partake in the Liturgy of the court—Such measures are not only unjust, but ineffective. We cannot refrain from condemning the slightest exercise of inquisitorial power. Uniformity of opinion can never be produced by violence.

This parliament was completely obsequious to the royal will; all the members having been nominated by the court. Indeed, during her whole reign, Elizabeth swayed the

sceptre with an authority unrestrained by the least regard to the constitution; and, to this domineering spirit both lords and commons submitted, with a degree of tameness and servility, which stamps their memories with indelible disgrace. They might indeed give directions for the due tanning of leather, or the milling of cloth; the assessment of taxes, the mending of decayed bridges, or the whipping of beggars; any thing further, she thought, was above their understanding. Three representatives, however, Carleton, Yelverton, and Peter Wentworth, resolutely supported parliamentary independence.

We come now to the most interesting, though, certainly, the most disagreeable, part of the history, of this celebrated reign.

The lineal heir to the crown, after Elizabeth, was Mary, queen of Scots, (descended from Margaret, a sister of Henry the eighth, and wife of James the fourth of Scotland,) who still resided abroad, and now, as wife of Francis the second, enjoyed also the title of queen of France. As both, by direction of the late French king, had assumed not only the arms, but the royal titles, of England, Elizabeth persevered in opposing the wishes of the nation, that Mary should be acknowledged her successor; nor could she, until her latest breath, be induced to concur in the appointment even of another. Always fearful of an heir apparent, she amused the parliament by most artful evasions; and though she had frequently declared her resolutions to remain unmarried, she listened to the addresses of her numerous lovers; but, with the most refined coquetry, held her parliament and her lovers equally in suspense: the one by the hopes of an heir; the other by the expectation of a bride.

1561. The death of the French monarch naturally induced Mary to return to Scotland; and no woman, perhaps, ever experienced so great a change, in point of social enjoyment. To the gay and easy manners of the French, were now opposed the rough familiarities of the Scotch: to the splendid exterior of the Roman Catholic worship, the total abolition of the ancient rites. Every insult, that the violence of fanaticism could produce, was offered to her, without reserve; to which harsh and preposterous treatment, may, in part, be ascribed, those errors of her subsequent life, so much at variance with the tenor of her early conduct. For, hitherto, her deportment had been amiable.—She had now reached her nineteenth year: and the bloom of youth, and beauty of her person, were height

ened by the politeness of her manners, and the elegance of her acquirements. Her age, her rank, her education, invited her to liberty and cheerfulness; but, by the absurd severity of the reformers, she was debarred from every amusement; and her uncles, with the other French nobility, were driven to their own country, in disgust.

Notwithstanding the umbrage which Elizabeth had conceived, arising from Mary's having openly usurped the English dignities, and the resentment which the latter, on her side, might justly feel against Elizabeth, on account of the active part she had taken to encourage the Scotch in opposition to her rival, a cordial friendship seemed to be cemented between them: they wrote, every week, amicable letters to each other; and adopted the style and sentiments of sisters.

As Mary's uncle, the duke of Guise, was endeavouring to form a matrimonial alliance with her and the Archduke Charles, Elizabeth, to prevent it, not only gave this prince some hopes of obtaining herself, but intimated to Mary, that if she would espouse an English nobleman, her title to the crown of England should be examined. The person whom she named, was the earl of Leicester. This nobleman, a son of the late duke of Northumberland, had long been the favourite of Elizabeth, and, by his handsome person and insinuating address, had so deceived her, that she discovered not the odious vices of his disposition. Mary listened to the proposal: but Leicester was too great a favourite to be parted with; and Elizabeth soon withdrew the bait. By this duplicity of conduct, joined to some indications of insolent superiority, the correspondence of the two queens was for some time interrupted; but, to make up the breach, Mary despatched to London sir James Melville; a courtier of pleasing address and conversation. Melville insinuated himself completely into the confidence of Elizabeth, and made her discover the recesses of her heart, full of those levities, and ideas of rivalship, which possess the youngest and most frivolous of her sex. Sometimes, she was dressed in the English costume—sometimes, in the French—at another time, in the Italian; and she asked him which of these became her most. He answered, the Italian: a reply which he knew would be agreeable; because that mode showed to advantage her flowing locks; which, he remarked, though they were more red than yellow, she fancied were the handsomest in the world. She asked, whether his queen, or she, had the finest hair.

She even inquired which had the fairest person—a very delicate question; which he prudently eluded, by saying, that her majesty was the fairest person in England, and his mistress, in Scotland. From the whole of her behaviour, Melville concluded, that his queen had no reason ever to expect any cordial friendship from Elizabeth; and that all her professions were full of falsehood and dissimulation.

At length, Mary was married to lord Darnley, son to the earl of Lenox, of the house of Stuart, and, after her, heir to the crown of England. Elizabeth was so enraged at this, that she threw the countess of Lenox and her second son into the Tower, and confiscated the earl's English estate; though without being able to assign a single reason for her displeasure.

But Mary had overlooked the qualities of her husband's mind: insolent, credulous, and easily governed by flatterers, all domestic enjoyments were poisoned by those propensities, and the whole nation soon became a scene of faction and confusion. Of these, Elizabeth was always sure to take advantage. There was, at this time, in the Scottish court, one David Rizzio, an Italian musician, who enjoyed, with Mary, an extraordinary degree of confidence, and acted as secretary for French despatches. By these favours, and his joining the Roman Catholic party, he became so obnoxious, that a conspiracy was formed against him. Lord Ruthven, George Douglas, Darnley, and some
1566. others, entered the room where Mary, with the countess of Argyle, and Rizzio, was at supper; and, rushing upon the favourite, they despatched him with their daggers.

Henceforth, Mary conceived an incurable antipathy towards Darnley. Now, commenced, the decline of all her grandeur, and a total contempt of virtue, or even of character. She attached herself to lord Bothwell: the murder of her husband was soon effected; and, of their being the perpetrators of that horrid deed, no reasonable doubt remains! Scarcely three months had passed, before she was married to this man; though he then had a wife alive. The earl of Argyle, lord Hume, and many more, flew to arms. Bothwell escaped to Denmark; Mary was dethroned and imprisoned, and her infant son, by Darnley, was proclaimed king, under the title of James the sixth.

The miserable queen escaped into England. Here, being again imprisoned, she desired to exonerate herself, by trial, from the charge of her husband's murder: and, in

consequence, many meetings of the Scotch and English commissioners took place; but without a decision In the mean time, the duke of Norfolk, contrary to the wishes of Elizabeth, having made Mary a tender of his hand, she promised to espouse him, as soon as she could be legally divorced from Bothwell. Though Norfolk was a protestant, he was highly respected amongst the great catholic nobility; by whose influence, and that of the king of Spain he joined Mary in a plan of insurrection, invasion, and subversion of the government. This conspiracy, however, being detected, the duke was condemned and executed. The unhappy queen, during a long series of years, was removed from prison to prison; still, naturally, forming plans for her liberation. At length, she was charged with associating in a conspiracy, which aimed even at the life of Elizabeth, and was conveyed to Fotheringay-castle, in Northamptonshire; which, it was determined, should be the last stage of her earthly sufferings. Here, she was brought to trial and condemned. As soon as her son, the king of Scotland, heard of this event, he sent sir William Keith with a letter to Elizabeth; in which, he remonstrated, in severe terms, against the indignity and cruelty of the procedure. But this exercise of filial duty had no effect. After delays, produced rather by dissimulation than humanity, she signed the warrant for her execution; and Mary's head
1587. was soon severed from her body. Thus, perished this unfortunate female, in the forty-fifth year of her age, and nineteenth of her captivity in England.

During these transactions, Elizabeth was engaged in succouring the protestants in France and the Low Countries. In the latter, the infamous Philip of Spain, aided by the equally atrocious duke of Alva, had driven the followers of Luther to so great a pitch of desperation, that they flew to arms; and, in a few days, the provinces of Holland and Zealand shook off his authority. William, prince of Orange, by uniting the revolted districts into a league, laid the foundation of the celebrated Dutch Commonwealth; since erected into a monarchy, called the kingdom of the Netherlands.

Francis Drake, a bold and celebrated seaman, fitted out, at his own expense, five vessels, with which he passed through the Strait of Magellan, into the Pacific Ocean: then, having taken many rich prizes from the Spaniards, he set sail for the East Indies, and returned by the Cape of Good Hope, after an absence of more than three years. He

was the first Englishman that sailed round the globe, and the first commander, of any nation; (Magellan, whose ship had before performed the same voyage, having died in the passage;) for which memorable achievement, he was knighted by the queen.

In retaliation for Elizabeth's enmity, Philip sent a small body of men into Ireland. But the earl of Ormond besieged them in Kerry, where they had erected a fort, and made them all prisoners.

1588. Accounts were now received from all quarters, of an immense armament nearly completed by the Spaniards; whose monarch, founding his pretensions to the English crown, upon his descent from a female branch of the house of Lancaster, and the will of his late consort Mary, meditated the invasion and entire conquest of England. The chief support of the kingdom seemed to consist in the vigour and prudence of the queen; who, undismayed by the present dangers, issued all her orders with tranquillity. The more to excite the martial ardour of the nation, she appeared, on horseback, in the camp at Tilbury; and, riding along the lines, cheered the soldiers by her eloquence, and the animation of her countenance. People of every class, and of every religion, forgot their animosities, and strove only for the safety of their country. The royal navy of England amounted only to twenty-eight sail, of but small size: all the sailors in the kingdom, to fourteen-thousand; however, the seaports freely contributed to increase the fleet, and what was wanting in the number, was supplied by the bravery and experience, of the men. Lord Howard of Effingham, a man of courage and capacity, was admiral; and, under him, were, Drake, Hawkins, and Frobisher; the most renowned seamen in the world. The admiral had scarcely got out of Plymouth, when he saw the Spanish Armada (by which name this famous armament is known) coming full sail towards him, disposed in the form of a crescent, and displaying a front of no less than seven miles. It consisted of one-hundred-and-thirty vessels, of larger size than were ever before used in Europe, and had on board thirty-thousand men.—As the Armada advances up the Channel, Effingham hangs upon its rear, occasionally giving battle; when, each trial abates the confidence of the Spaniards, and adds courage to the English. The fire of the enemy passes over the heads of their assailants, whilst almost every English shot is the messenger of death.—Effingham now sends fire-ships amongst the

Spaniards:—nothing is to be seen but terror and confusion:—they take to flight—the English seize the advantage and pursue; but want of ammunition constrains them to desist.

Their disasters were not yet completed. A violent tempest overtook them, driving them either upon the coast of Ireland, or on the Western isles of Scotland; where, they were so miserably wrecked or shattered, that not half of the boasted armament returned to Spain.

From the noble breed of horses then driven on these places, are descended the beautiful little race of Scotch ponies; which, without the size, retain all the spirit, and all the symmetry, of their progenitors.

1599. The affairs of Ireland next demand attention. Although the claim of England to that country had now existed above four centuries, her authority was, hitherto, little more than nominal. The Irish princes and nobles divided amongst themselves, readily paid exterior marks of obeisance to a power which they were not able wholly to resist; but, as no permanent force was ever assigned for the purpose of retaining them in subjection, they still relapsed into their former state of independence. The laws enacted for the government of this unhappy country, were ungenerous and absurd. When every other Christian nation was cultivating the sciences, and the refinements of society, Ireland, lying in a temperate climate, enjoying a fertile soil, with many other natural advantages, was inhabited by a people whose situation was deplorable. To suppress the extensive insurrections of the O'Neales, (the earls of Desmond and Thomond,) the queen sent over a powerful army, under the command of Devereux, earl of Essex; whom she appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland. This young nobleman had distinguished himself in many naval and military enterprises; and, as the earl of Leicester was now dead, Essex occupied his place in the queen's affections. But, in Ireland, he was entirely unsuccessful. He was recalled—disgraced—received again into favour—again dismissed; and being driven, at last, almost to frenzy, by the fluctuation of his hopes and disappointments, he endeavoured to overturn the government. For this, he was condemned, and taken to the scaffold; where he confessed the justice of his sentence.

1603. From the death of Essex, the health of the queen visibly declined. She fell into a profound melancholy, which all the glories of her administration were unable

to alleviate; and expired in the seventieth year of her age, and the forty-fifth of her reign; having expressed a desire that the king of Scotland should succeed her.

Few sovereigns have displayed abilities equal to Elizabeth's; and, certainly, such talents were never shown by any other female, in any age, or in any nation. She was a woman of considerable accomplishments: Greek and Lat in were familiar to her; but she was devoid of that soft ness of disposition, without which, her sex are never amiable. Overbearing in the council, her ministers feared her as a tiger. Imperious in the palace, her servants dreaded her approach.

Elizabeth founded Trinity College in Dublin; ordered the printing of the "English Mercury," which was the earliest newspaper in the kingdom; established posts for the regular transmission of letters; directed the cultivation of hemp and flax, and introduced into England the manufacture of gunpowder and of brass-cannon. She also granted a charter to the East India Company; the first voyage to the Indian seas having been effected in her reign: despatched a squadron for the purpose of finding a passage to Hindostan, by the north-west, under the command of Frobisher; and another, intrusted to the skill of Davis; who were unsuccessful, but respectively, discovered the straits that bear their names: and she obtained from the czar of Muscovy a privilege of vending the manufactures of England through his whole dominions, free from duty, as well as of carrying them to Persia and Media, by the Caspian sea; the merchants of other nations not being allowed to trade beyond Moscow. Copper-mines were opened, and mills erected for slitting iron bars. The printing of linen commenced, and the manufacture of paper; and commerce was rendered less hazardous to individuals, by insurance on ships at sea. The nobility began to build their houses of brick and stone, with glass windows: coaches were introduced, pocket-watches brought over from Germany; and the queen, having received a present of a pair of silk knit-stockings, discontinued the previously universal fashion of hose, or stockings made of cloth. Sir Thomas Gresham, a merchant, erected in London, at his own expense, a building, which, in presence of the queen, was called the Royal Exchange; and the Bodleian Library, at Oxford, was, with equal liberality, founded and largely endowed by sir Thomas Bodley.

Though the population of England did not then exceed

four millions, the rage of colonization was very great. Sir Walter Raleigh made several unsuccessful attempts to establish a colony on the island of Roanoke, off the coast now called North Carolina; then called Virginia: a name given by Elizabeth to all the English discoveries in America during her reign; as a memorial that they were made under a virgin queen. Tobacco was brought into England from those parts; and was rendered fashionable by Raleigh; and (in 1565) the potato, called *battata* by the Indians, was brought into Ireland from Mexico, by sir John Hawkins; being the first of that valuable article of food introduced into Europe.

Elizabeth had the honour of patronizing Spenser and Shakespeare, Sackville and sir Philip Sidney. Spenser is the author of that admired poem, the Fairy Queen; written in a provincial dialect; not in the national language of his time. The numerous productions of Shakespeare, show that he possessed dramatic talents, and a knowledge of human nature, greater than were ever displayed by any other man, at any period of the world. Holinshed was distinguished for his Chronicles; and Briggs, for his ingenious researches in mathematics.

CHAPTER XIII.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Union of the English and Scotch Crowns.

JAMES THE FIRST.

1603—1625.

THE sceptre now passed from the house of Tudor to that of Stuart; and, henceforward, the crowns of England and Scotland were united.

James the first of England, and sixth of Scotland, was son of the unfortunate Mary, and Henry Stuart, lord Darnley; and grandson of Margaret, daughter of Henry the seventh. He had been baptized a Roman Catholic, but was afterwards educated in the protestant religion; the famous historian, Buchanan, being his tutor.

James was at this time in his thirty-eighth year; was a man of considerable learning, of a social disposition, but averse to the bustle of the world, and to the noisy demonstrations of joy, which the people, crowding around him, so willingly displayed. He was not, however, insensible to this great overflow of affection. He seems to have been in haste to make them some return. Hence, that profusion of favours, in the beginning of his reign. In six weeks after his entrance into England, he conferred knighthood on above two-hundred persons; and titles of all kinds became so common, that they were no longer considered as marks of distinction. From an excusable weakness, he was partial to men of his own country; yet, he retained, in all the principal offices, the ministers of Elizabeth; and sir Robert Cecil, created by him earl of Salisbury, (son of the great Burleigh) was always regarded as his prime minister. To congratulate the king on his accession, there soon appeared at court ambassadors from almost every state in Europe; amongst whom, was the accomplished marquis of Rosni, (afterwards duke of Sully,) the favourite minister of the celebrated Henry the fourth, of France.

Amidst the great tranquillity, with which the nation was now blessed, nothing could be more surprising, than the discovery of a conspiracy, to place on the throne Arabella Stuart, a near relation of the king. Of this, there were accused, several men of different religions: and, amongst the number, sir Walter Raleigh; who was, in consequence, (without, however, any satisfactory proof,) condemned to die; but afterwards *reprieved*, though not *pardoned*. The prosecutions were conducted by sir Edward Coke; who insulted Raleigh with abuse, so extremely gross, that his conduct may be deemed a reproach, not only on his own memory, but on the manners of the age.

1605. This year is remarkable for one of the most celebrated events in the history of England—the Gunpowder Plot: a fact as certain as it appears incredible; displaying, at once, the widest departure from moral virtue, and the steadiest attachment to religious prepossession. Catesby, a man of respectable family, and Percy, a descendant of the house of Northumberland, were the projectors of a scheme, for restoring the Roman Catholics to power; and formed the diabolical plan of blowing up the house of parliament with gunpowder. "We must destroy," said they, "the king, the royal family, the lords, the commons; and bury all our enemies in one general ruin. They are

now assembled in the first meeting of parliament; and afford us the opportunity of glorious and useful vengeance." For this purpose, they engaged one Guy Fawkes, an officer in the Spanish service; with whose zeal and ingenuity, they were well acquainted. Happily, however, Providence averted, by a discovery, this dreadful blow; after the gunpowder and the matches were conveyed into a vault under the house of lords. Here, Fawkes being seized, he made a full confession of his own guilt, and that of his associates; who, with himself, met the reward which their crime so highly merited. But let us not involve the Roman Catholic body in this horrid plot. It would be unjust. The king was conscious that they were unfairly implicated; and declared, that, for his part, the conspiracy, however atrocious, should not alter, in the least, his plan of government.

"James frequently boasted," says Hume, "that the management of Ireland was his masterpiece. Upon inquiry, it will appear, that his vanity, in this particular, was not without foundation. Although Elizabeth had succeeded in finally subjecting that country; yet, the more difficult task remained—to civilize the inhabitants, and reconcile them to industry and laws. James proceeded by a steady and well concerted plan; and, in less than ten years, did more towards the improvement of that kingdom, than all his predecessors had accomplished, in upwards of four centuries. By the old Irish custom, every crime, however enormous, was punished, not by death, but by a pecuniary fine. Murder itself was atoned for in this manner: and each man, according to his rank, had a different rate or value affixed to him; which, if any one was willing to pay, he might assassinate his enemy. This rate was called his *eric*. When sir William Fitzwilliams, a governor of Ireland, told Maguire, an Irish chieftain, that he intended to send a sheriff into Fermanagh; which, a little before, had been made a county, and subjected to the English laws; 'Your sheriff,' said Maguire, 'shall be welcome to me: but, let me know before hand, his *eric*, or the price of his head; that, if my people cut it off, I may levy the money upon the county.' As for oppression, extortion, or other trespasses, so little were they regarded, that no redress for such offences could ever be obtained. James abolished these Irish customs, and substituted the laws of England; and, having declared the natives to be free citizens, proceeded to govern them by a regular administration. The whole province of Ulster having fallen to the crown, by the attainder of the

rebels, a company for establishing in it new colonies was formed in London: tenants were sent over from England and Scotland: the Irish were removed from their retreats, and settled in the open country: husbandry and the arts were taught them; and, by these means, Ulster, from being the wildest and the most disorderly province of all Ireland, soon became the most highly cultivated and the most civilized."

Although we do not deny Hume our general approbation, yet we cannot accord with his manner of treating the affairs of Ireland. In this instance, he is extremely superficial; indeed, more so, than the extended plan of his valuable work would lead us to expect. That the Irish, even at the period to which he alludes, were in some degree uncivilized, and that their laws were neither judiciously framed, nor properly enforced, we readily admit. But, the oppressions under which they laboured from their rapacious masters, had assisted in prolonging this miserable condition; and we confidently maintain, that they were not more remarkable for insubordination than the Scotch; nor many degrees more uncivilized than the English. To Scotland Hume is certainly not partial; but still, he has paid more attention to her affairs than to those of Ireland; and had he gone more minutely into the latter, this "master piece" of James, would not appear so equitable. Historians of great research, attribute the colonization of Ulster to his desire of extending the protestant religion; and assert, that several of the Irish chieftains had been attainted and deprived of their estates, without sufficient evidence.

Those who feel an interest in the concerns of Ireland, will be gratified by the works of Davies, Leland, O'Halloran, Ledwich, Gordon, Plowden, and Lawless; and by a late work—the "Vindiciæ Hibernicæ" of Carey.

James had, in common with other men, his failings and his follies. His puerile attachment to favourites was first conspicuous in the honours, and confidence, which he so lavishly gave to Robert Carr. Though Carr was made known to the king merely by accident, he was soon created viscount Rochester, and earl of Somerset; was loaded with riches, and had, for a while, the sole direction of national affairs. Unworthy, from the beginning, of these distinctions, this upstart minion plunged headlong into the deepest crimes; was disgraced, and dragged out a miserable life in obscurity and detestation. To Carr, succeeded George Villiers; a younger brother of a good English family; whose

chief advantages were a handsome person, genteel air, and fashionable dress. First, he was made cupbearer to the king; then, successively, created viscount Villiers, earl, marquis, and duke of Buckingham, knight of the garter, master of the horse, chief justice in Eyre, warden of the cinque ports, master of the king's bench office, steward of Westminster, constable of Windsor, and lord high admiral of England! Of every talent, requisite for a statesman, he was utterly devoid; and, to indulge his pride or his insolence, he sacrificed the faith of treaties, the character of the nation, and the honour of his benefactor.

Hitherto, the influence of parliament, in questions of great national importance, was undefined. Those invaluable rights, which the people fondly supposed had been ascertained and secured by the great charter, were frittered away, by the insolence of the crown, the servile flattery of ministers, the ignorance and submission of the public guardians. But a new era now burst forth. The minds of men became more enlightened; the prince was less capable of tyranny, though not less inclined to be a tyrant.

In one of his speeches, he insisted, that, as it was blasphemy for man to dispute what God might do, in the fulness of his omnipotence; so, was it sedition, for subjects to dispute what a king might do, in the fulness of his power. The commons, however, assumed a degree of vigour and boldness: they began to call public officers to account; and no situation was above the reach of their investigation. The office of chancellor was then filled by the celebrated Francis Bacon, viscount St. Albans; a man universally admired for the greatness of his genius, and beloved for the humanity of his disposition. But, unfortunately, his want of economy having involved him in necessity, he had taken several bribes from the suitors in chancery; which caused his impeachment, and a sentence, that he should pay a fine of forty-thousand pounds, and be for ever incapable of holding any public employment.

We have another instance of deviation from the path of rectitude, in sir Walter Raleigh. This great man had been confined in the Tower for thirteen years; during which time, he had increased his literary reputation, by writing a history of the world. Eager, after so long an imprisonment, to obtain his liberty, he spread a report of a gold mine, that in one of his excursions he had discovered in Guiana; to which country, he perhaps imagined that England had a claim, from his having set up a mark upon the coast. The

king gave him liberty to go in search of this reported mine, but reserved the capital sentence, as a check upon his behaviour. Raleigh, accordingly, fitted out a fleet; with which he set sail to South America. But the mine from which he endeavoured to draw his riches, was the Spanish town of St. Thomas; which he seized, and afterwards set on fire.

1618. For this, he was, on his return, executed upon his *former sentence.* The crown lawyers justified themselves, by a maxim, that no man could be tried on a fresh indictment, whilst lying under a previous sentence of death. This is strict law; however, their conduct bears a strong tincture of barbarism and injustice.

1625. In this spring, the king was seized with a tertian ague; which terminated his life, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-third of his reign over England. He was possessed of considerable virtues; but scarcely any of these were pure, or free from the contagion of the neighbouring vices. His generosity bordered on profusion, his learning on pedantry, his pacific disposition on pusillanimity, his wisdom on cunning, his friendship on light fancy and boyish fondness.

He left only one son, Charles; and one daughter, Elizabeth, married to the Elector Palatine.

It was in this reign, and through the desire and patronage of James, that the last authorized English translation of the Bible, was begun and finished.

But, notwithstanding this monarch's attention to religion, his mind was clouded with the childish superstition of his native country. In the first year of his reign in England, it was enacted, that all persons invoking any evil spirit, covenanting with, entertaining, employing, feeding, or rewarding it, or taking up dead bodies from the grave, to be used in any witchcraft, sorcery, charm, or enchantment; or killing or otherwise hurting any one by such infernal arts, should be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy, and suffer death.* This law continued in force till lately; to the terror of all ancient females in the kingdom; many of whom were thereby sacrificed, to the prejudice of their neighbours, or their own illusions.

* The term "benefit of clergy," signifies, in the English law, a privilege anciently granted to all clergymen, by which they were exempted from capital punishment, for a first offence. It was afterwards allowed to any person that could read; and is now, in many cases, pleaded, by every criminal, as a matter of course, and obliges the judge to commute the infliction of death, for some milder punishment.

Throughout all Europe, and especially in England, a taste was now generally diffused for literature, and the liberal as well as mechanical arts; for commerce, and for colonial establishments. But the English seem not yet to have learned the art of dyeing and dressing woolen-cloth: it was mostly exported as it came from the loom, and was dyed and finished by the Dutch. Holland, at this time, traded to England with six-hundred ships; England to Holland, with only sixty. The most active promoter of the colonies was Richard Hakluyt, prebendary of Westminster; who, in order to excite his countrymen to naval enterprise, published his valuable collection of voyages and discoveries made by Englishmen. King James divided Virginia into two districts: the southern portion still retained its name; but the northern received the appellation of New England. A charter was granted to Hakluyt, Gates, and Summers; authorizing them to occupy, in the former, an extent of one-hundred miles along the coast, and extend to an equal distance into the interior. Accordingly, three vessels, under the command of captain Newport, with one-hundred men, set sail; and, on the 26th of April, 1607, entered the Bay of Chesapeake; contemplating, with delight, the happy discovery of that spacious inlet. Then, keeping along the southern shore, they sailed up a river, which the natives called Powhatan; and to which they gave the name of James River. Having landed, they called their infant settlement James Town; which, though still only a poor place, can boast of being the most ancient English establishment in America. Gates and Summers, about two years afterwards, sailed with five-hundred planters. In their passage, they were stranded on the Bermuda Islands; but, at length, they succeeded in reaching James Town, with all their adventurers. The first governor of the new colony was lord Delaware.

We must not omit to mention captain Smith, as a most intrepid and distinguished character amongst these early settlers; nor the marriage of captain Rolfe, with the beautiful and amiable Pocahuntas, daughter of the great chief Powhatan; from which celebrated princess, some of the most opulent families in Virginia are proud to claim their descent.

The most ancient permanent establishment in New England, was made in the year 1620, in Massachusetts Bay; and was named New Plymouth. Thence, arising from theological disputes, were formed, Rhode Island and Connecti-

cut; one under the direction of a clergyman named Williams; at a place which he called Providence: the other, under that of Hooker, also a clergyman; the oldest settlement in which is Hartford. New Hampshire is indebted for its rise to the same cause: it made no advancement, until Exeter was founded by Mr. Wheelright; a divine who had been banished from Massachusetts.

To enter into a minute criticism of the writers of this age, would exceed our plan. Their style was rude, and widely different from the present; but their distorted expressions are attended with such vigour of mind, that we must admire the imagination which produced them. Ben Jonson, an eminent dramatic writer, possessed more learning than Shakespeare, but was far inferior to him in genius; and Beaumont, and his coadjutor, Fletcher, were also conspicuous for their comic talents. Camden was the most correct historian of his age; Speed and Stow are distinguished for their labours in the same walk; and Spelman, as well as sir Robert Cotton, has transmitted interesting researches for the antiquarian. As a lawyer, deeply learned in his arduous profession, we must distinguish sir Edward Coke; advanced to the office of lord chief justice. His most remarkable work is the Institutes of the Laws of England; part of which is a translation from the writings of sir Thomas Littleton, one of the judges in the reign of Edward the fourth. Inigo Jones has left various monuments of skill in architecture. Mathematics engrossed the chief attention of Hariot, Gunter, and lord Napier. Gunter is the contriver of the valuable rule of proportion inscribed upon his Scale: in 1614, that science was enriched by Napier's invention of logarithms; and, in five years afterwards the circulation of the blood was discovered by Dr. Harvey. But, so slow is the progress of truth, in every science, when opposed by pre-existing opinions, that no physician in Europe, who had reached forty years of age, ever adopted that great discovery; and Harvey's practice in London was extremely diminished, from the reproach which it drew upon him.

The dignity of Baronet, the lowest degree of hereditary honours, was founded by king James. This title, originally confined to gentlemen who held a clear annual income from lands of one-thousand pounds, was granted in consideration of a certain pecuniary payment, and of each members raising and maintaining thirty soldiers for the defence of the Irish province of Ulster.

Agriculture, though much improved, was still very imperfect. England, in a great measure, depended upon foreign nations for her daily bread. Wheat was considered low at thirty-two shillings; barley, at sixteen shillings per quarter, of eight bushels: a turkey sold for three shillings and six pence; a goose two shillings; though the pay of a private soldier, enlisted from a much better rank than at present, was only eight pence a day; by which, we may form some estimate of the general remuneration of manual labour; and conclude, that the working people were not so comfortably provided, as at the present time. By the king's direction, mulberry-trees were planted, and silk-worms introduced; but, to the success of this project, the climate of England was unfavourable. That valuable article, Alum, indispensable in the dyeing of several colours, was first manufactured in England in the year 1608; having, before, been imported from the continent.

Hudson, when searching for a north-west passage to the East Indies, entered the spacious bay which retains his name; and the English, in this reign, discovered and planted the island of Barbadoes.

CHARLES THE FIRST.

1625—1649.

Charles, the only surviving son of James, ascended the throne at the age of twenty-five years. In his father's life time, he had been contracted to the princess Henrietta, of France, daughter of Henry the fourth; with whom the nuptials were celebrated shortly after he assumed the reins of government.

When we view him in the domestic circle of his family, it is difficult to imagine a character more respectable: a kind husband—an indulgent father—a gentle master—a steadfast friend. His address and manner, though inclining towards formality, corresponded to his rank; and gave grace to his natural gravity and reserve. The good sense which he evinced in conversation, promised success in every reasonable undertaking; and he displayed other endowments, which, in a private gentleman, would have been highly ornamental, and, in a monarch, might have been exerted for the benefit of society. In any other age, or nation, this prince would probably have enjoyed a happy reign. The exalted idea, however, of regal authority

spect for the honour of his mistress. When, therefore, the duke was preparing for a new embassy to Paris, a message was sent him, from Louis, intimating that he must not think of such a journey. But, Buckingham, in a romantic passion, swore, that he would see the queen, in spite of all the power of France; and, from that moment, determined to have a war. Accordingly, under pretence of assisting the Hugonots, a sect of protestants in France, he made an attempt, with a large fleet and an army of seven-thousand men, upon the Isle of Rhe; but, instead of reaching Paris, he had much difficulty in even returning to England; as he was compelled to retreat, with the loss of two-thirds of his forces; totally discredited, both as an admiral and a general

It may well be imagined, that the king and the duke now dreaded, above all things the calling of a parliament; but the urgent occasion for money drove them under the necessity of embracing that expedient. When the commons assembled, they displayed the same independent spirit as their predecessors; yet, although many of the members had been cast into prison, and had suffered by the measures of the court, they entered upon business with perfect temper and decorum. The king said to them in his speech, "If you do not perform your duty, in contributing to the necessities of the state, I must, in discharge of my conscience, use *those other means*, which God has put into my hands; in order to save that, which the folly of some men, may, otherwise, put in danger. Take not this for threatening," added he, "for I scorn to threaten any but my equals; but as an admonition, from him, who, by nature and duty, has most care of your preservation and prosperity."

The business having commenced, sir Francis Seymour said: "This is the great council of the kingdom; and here, with certainty, if not here, only, his majesty may see, as in a true glass, the state of the kingdom. We are called hither, by his writs, to give him faithful counsel; such as may stand with his honour: and this we must do without flattery. We are also sent hither by the people, to deliver their just grievances: and this we must do without fear. Let us not act as Cambyses' judges; who, when their approbation was demanded by the prince, to some illegal measure, said, that, though there was a written law, the Persian kings must follow their own will and pleasure. This was base flattery; fitter for reproof than imitation: and as fear, so flattery, taketh away the judgment. For

my part, I will shun both; and speak my mind, with as much duty as any man, to his majesty, without neglecting the public."

Philips and Wentworth ably supported the eloquence of Seymour; and their sentiments were unanimously embraced.

Though a supply of two-hundred-and-eighty-thousand pounds was voted, the house deferred passing it into a law, until they had provided some barriers against the encroachments of the crown. A bill, entitled the Petition of Rights, was then passed through the commons; which received the sanction of the lords, and, after much evasion and duplicity, obtained the royal assent.

But, the manner in which the king assented to this bill, served rather to heighten the animosity, than relax the vigour, of the commons. To the complaints against tonnage and poundage, (impositions said to be levied for the navy,) loud outcries were joined against the Catholics, and the Arminians; so that political and theological disputes went hand in hand. Information being given by the speaker, that he had a command from the king to adjourn the house, a short remonstrance was passed in the most tumultuary manner; declaring, that those who levied tonnage and poundage, and those who should voluntarily pay those duties, were, alike, enemies of the commonwealth.

1628. To prepare an expedition for a further attack on France, the duke of Buckingham went to Portsmouth; where his career was ended by an assassin. He was stabbed in the breast by one Felton; who, having served under him as a lieutenant, was disappointed in promotion. Thus, do the unfortunate, by seeking for revenge, throw an indelible stain upon their memories, plunge their families into misery, and violate the most awful commandment of their Creator.

Henceforward, Charles placed his principal friendship and confidence in his queen; from whom, Buckingham had, in some degree, alienated his affections. By her general good sense and spirit, as well as by her beauty, she justified the fondness of her husband; though, being rather of a passionate temper, she involved him in hasty and imprudent measures. Her religion, likewise, to which she was strongly attached, must be regarded as a great misfortune; as it increased the jealousy of the nation against the court.

Charles, being disgusted with parliaments, resolved, an

til he should see the nation in a better humour, to do without their assistance; and, to lessen his expenditure, made peace with France and Spain.

Various expedients were used to augment his revenue. For a stipulated sum of money, individuals were allowed the exclusive advantages arising from certain branches of commerce and manufacture; and all persons having a yearly income of twenty pounds, were compelled, under the pretence of being qualified, in conformity with a long exploded custom, to attend the sovereign in war, either to accept knighthood, or pay a heavy fine.

The people were still further irritated by the conduct of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury; who studied to exalt the ecclesiastical power, and depress the civil: to revive the ancient ceremonies, and retard the progress of the puritans. The latter went off in great numbers to New England; and there sought for that civil and religious liberty, which they were denied at home. But their enemies were unwilling that they should any where be happy. Eight ships, lying in the Thames, ready to sail, were detained by the council; in which, were embarked, Hazlerig, Cromwell, and Hambden; a measure of which the king had, afterwards, great reason to repent.

1637. The situation of Scotland now demands our attention. There, too, the misguided Charles was involved in difficulties the most serious. With him, prejudice had usurped the seat of reason; and misfortune exalted his lofty ideas of prerogative. The form of church government established in Scotland, was the presbyterian: could any thing, therefore, be imagined more absurd, or more impolitic, than an attempt to force, upon his northern subjects, the English liturgy, with the whole train of ecclesiastical dignities? Yet this was really attempted! A day had been appointed, by proclamation, for the first reading of the new service in Edinburgh: and, accordingly, the dean, arrayed in his surplice, began the service; the bishop himself, and many of the privy counsellors, being present. But, no sooner had the dean opened the book, than a multitude of the meanest sort, most of them women, clapping their hands, cursing, and crying out, *A pope! a pope! antichrist! stone him!* raised so great a tumult, that it was impossible to proceed with the service The bishop, when mounting the pulpit in order to appease the populace, had a stool thrown at him; and, after the

magistrates had expelled the rabble, stones were thrown in through the doors and windows. These rude indications displayed, however, the general sentiments of the nation: an assembly soon after met at Glasgow; in which, the liturgy, and the whole fabric of episcopacy, were abolished, and a Covenant entered into, renouncing the papal doctrines, and binding the subscribers to resist all religious innovations. But, being sensible of the opposition which would be made, and that their religious tenets must be protected by military force, they prepared themselves for a vigorous defence. The earl of Argyle was their chief leader: the earls of Rothes, Cassils, Montrose, Lothian; lords Lindsey, Loudon, Yester, and Balmerino; distinguished themselves on the same side; and the marquis of Huntley adhered to the king. War soon commenced, and continued with great disadvantage on the side of Charles.

1640. Heavy debts having been contracted, and the treasury exhausted, a parliament, after above eleven years' intermission, was summoned, as the only resource. But the commons paid no regard to the distresses of the king. Grievances were again the order of the day; and, again, the friends of the king were outnumbered by his enemies; or, rather, the enemies of the nation were outnumbered by its friends. No supply was voted; and a dissolution hastily ensued.

An army, undisciplined, disheartened, mutinous, and badly paid, was very unfit to contend with the enthusiastic soldiers of the North; and retain in subjection the zealous and discontented inhabitants of England. Charles, in despair of being able to stem the torrent, resolved, again, to try the temper of the commons. In the month of November, the great council of the nation assembled; distinguished by the name of the long parliament; which immediately entered upon business, and in its very first proceeding gave an awful indication of what followed.

Sir Thomas Wentworth, who had so eminently distinguished himself in defence of liberty, had been, with many other patriots, loaded with royal favours. These may be regarded as the first attempts of the crown to lessen the strength of opposition, by enlisting the ablest members on its side; a measure equally degrading to the monarch and the subject. Wentworth had been created earl of Strafford; appointed lord lieutenant of Ireland; latterly, he was made commander of the forces against the Scotch; and, for many years, was considered as chief counsellor of the king. But

in proportion as he gained the affection of the king he lost the confidence of the people; and, by a concurrence of accidents, laboured under the severe hatred of the English, the Irish, and the Scotch. Aware of the danger of appearing amongst his enraged enemies, he would gladly have been excused from attending the present parliament: but the king promised him protection; and assured him, that "not a hair of his head should be touched." On his arrival, the attack commenced. Pym enumerated the national grievances; from the several oppressions, inferred, that a plan had been formed for subverting the ancient constitution of the kingdom, and mentioned Strafford as the most distinguished betrayer of his country. He was impeached for high treason and arrested. Westminster Hall was the place appointed, for his trial; where both houses sat: the commons as accusers, the lords as judges; and a close gallery was prepared for the king and queen; who attended during the whole of this important business. Four months had been employed in framing the accusation; yet, so great was the genius and presence of mind displayed by this accomplished statesman, that he gained over his accusers a decided victory. Finding that, upon these charges, it would be impossible to convict him, a bill of attainder was voted in parliament, and carried to the king for his assent. The populace flocked about the palace, and accompanied their demands for justice with the loudest clamours, and the most open menaces; and every thing threatened an imminent convulsion. Charles abhorred the idea of dooming to destruction his friend, for whose safety he was pledged. But the queen, in tears, pressed him to gratify the people; and Strafford, himself, wrote a letter to the king, entreating him "to put an end to his unfortunate, though innocent, life." Charles, in an evil hour, consented to the bill; and by this act, consigned to the scaffold his firmest friend, and fixed upon his own memory an indelible reproach. The authority of the crown was now annihilated: the government became purely democratical; and the king merely an instrument of form.

1641. In the following autumn, Charles was employed in Scotland; endeavouring, by concessions, to appease the general discontent. When preparing to return, he received intelligence of a formidable rebellion having broken out in Ireland. On every side, he was pursued by opposition and civil wars. The most effective portion of the army having been withdrawn from the protection of the

Irish government, the native race resolved to seize the favourable opportunity of driving out the new settlers in Ulster: the flames of rebellion instantly spread over the whole country; so that, in a short time, Dublin, and a few other fortified towns, were all that remained in the hands of the English.

In England, affairs rapidly approached a crisis. To the general amazement, the king, in order to arrest some obnoxious members, entered the house of commons; having left an armed retinue at the door. The speaker withdrew from the chair; of which, the king took possession. Having made a short speech, he then demanded of that officer, whether any of those persons were in the house; but he gave him no satisfaction. The commons were thrown into the utmost disorder. When the king was departing, some members cried aloud, privilege! privilege! and the house then adjourned until the next day.

Alarming cries resounded through the city: tumult succeeded; and the king, dreading the result, retired to Hampton Court; a royal palace, about fourteen miles from London. The parliament immediately assumed the command of the army, and of all the principal fortresses and towns; issuing their orders under "the authority of the king, signified by both houses of parliament." Charles then removed, still further, from the capital; taking with him two of his sons, the prince of Wales, and the duke of York; and sending his queen to Holland: whence, by pawning the crown-jewels, and by the influence of her son-in-law, the prince of Orange, she was enabled to return with artillery and ammunition.

1642. With a degree of activity, neither expected by his friends, nor apprehended by his enemies, Charles prepared himself for defence, and roused up his adherents to arms. Above forty peers, of the first rank, attended him at York; and his court soon bore the appearance of dignity and splendour. From that city, he advanced southwards to Nottingham, and there erected his standard—the open signal of discord and civil war.

From Nottingham, the king marched to Shrewsbury; where, on mustering his army, he found that it amounted to ten-thousand men. The earl of Lindsey was appointed general: prince Rupert, his nephew, son of the Palatine, commanded the light cavalry; sir Arthur Aston, the dragoons: sir Jacob Astley, the foot: sir John Heydon, the artillery: lord Bernard Stuart was at the head of a troop of

guards; and, besides these officers, he had, in the course of the war, the assistance of the earl of Montrose, the duke of Hamilton, and many more persons of distinction.

The parliamentary army was commanded by lord Fairfax, sir William Waller, the earl of Essex, and earl of Manchester. The earls of Northumberland and Warwick, were intrusted with the navy. But the men, on whom the events of the war finally depended, were, sir Thomas Fairfax, son of lord Fairfax, and Oliver Cromwell; particularly the latter. This extraordinary man, already conspicuous in parliament, for his opposition to the Roman Catholics, was born at Huntingdon, of a respectable family, who inherited an independent landed estate. His mother, whose name was Stuart, was related, it is supposed, to the family on the throne. He had been sent to college; but his genius was little suited to the elegant pursuits of learning. In his person, he was ungraceful: in his dress, slovenly: in his elocution, tedious and obscure.

The first military affair took place near Worcester; where colonel Sandys, who commanded a body of cavalry under Essex, was defeated by prince Rupert. To this, succeeded the well contested battle of Edgehill; in which, the king himself bore a conspicuous part. He was there opposed by the earl of Essex; and both sides continued the action with the utmost bravery, until night ended the fury of the combat.

Afterwards, there occurred, the battles of Stratton, Roundway-down, Chalgravefield, (where the great Hamb den was killed) Atherton-Moor, and Copredy-Bridge; in which, the king was successful: those of Landsdown and Newbury, undecided; also, the battles of Wakefield, Gainsborough, Horncastle, Selby, Cherington, Marston-Moor, and a second battle at Newbury; those of Naseby, Torrington, Sherburne in Yorkshire, Stowe, and Preston in Lancashire; in favour of the parliament. At Naseby, the royalists were so severely beaten, as to render their affairs irretrievable. In that engagement, the main body of the royal army was ably commanded by the king himself, seconded by prince Rupert. Fairfax led on the forces of the parliament; assisted by Skippon, Cromwell, and his son-in-law, Ireton.

There were few places, throughout the entire kingdom, which did not feel the effects of these dreadful commotions. Bristol, Gloucester, and Hull; Nantwich, Newark, and Lincoln; York, Newcastle, Lyme, and Weymouth; ex-

perienced the hardships of a siege: also, Pomfret, Carlisle, and Chester; Taunton in Somersetshire; Leicester, and Bath; Sherborn, Winchester, and Dartmouth; Exeter, Hereford, and Colchester.

Scarcely had the parliament acquired the ascendency, when their meetings became scenes of faction and confusion. A new party arose upon the ruins of the old. These were called Independents; who aimed not only at the total abolition of monarchy and aristocracy, but also of ecclesiastical distinctions, and every other rank in society. Their principal leaders were sir Harry Vane and Oliver Cromwell. Essex, Northumberland, Warwick, and sir William Waller, remained firm to the more rational opinions of the presbyterians. The command of the army devolved upon sir Thomas Fairfax, a moderate independent; and under him, in appearance, upon Cromwell; by whom, the former was, for a long time, entirely governed.

In the midst of this confusion, Archbishop Laud was executed.

1646. Nearly four years had elapsed since the king erected his standard at Nottingham; during which time, he had encountered every difficulty with the greatest fortitude. When driven from the field, Oxford may be considered as his principal retreat. Here, he had, for a short time, a distinct parliament; and made many fruitless endeavours towards a reconciliation. Henceforth, from the independents, he had nothing to expect but death. From the Scotch army, his countrymen, he had, he thought, some claim to protection. Accompanied only by two gentlemen, he passed, therefore, to their camp, at Newark. But they instantly placed a guard upon him, and soon afterwards delivered him to the English parliament.

Most violent contentions had, for some time past, existed between the parliament and the army. But the latter now struck a blow which may be deemed decisive. Charles had been conveyed to Holdenby in Northamptonshire; at which place, by the directions of Cromwell, cornet Joyce, at the head of five-hundred horse, appeared; and going up to the king, told him, that he must immediately accompany him. "Whither?" said the king. "To the army," replied Joyce. "By what warrant?" demanded Charles.—Joyce pointed to his soldiers—tall, handsome, and well accoutred. "Your warrant," said Charles, smiling, "is written in fair characters—legible without spelling." He was then conveyed to Triplo-Heath, near Cambridge.

Cromwell now proceeded to London, in order to subject the parliament. In this, he completely succeeded. The government became, in reality, a military tribunal; parliament, an empty name; used rather to countenance the turbulence of the army, than to curb its licentiousness, or administer justice to the people. Tedious negotiations ensued. The king granted more than was desired by the friends of the nation, and nearly all that was demanded by his own enemies. But, though he agreed to surrender almost every exercise of regal office, and almost entirely to suppress the established religion throughout the empire, and even within the precincts of his own house, he could not obtain a restoration; either because, from his equivocal manner of negotiating, it was thought imprudent to confide in him, or that it was not the wish of the ruling faction, that an accommodation should be effected on any terms.

1649. In the house of commons, a vote was made, declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his parliament; and appointing a High Court of Justice, to try Charles for that offence. This measure was rejected by the lords; but the commons disregarded their dissent, and unanimously passed an order for his trial.

The court sat in Westminster Hall; and consisted of one-hundred-and-thirty-three members, appointed by the commons; of which number, there never met above seventy. Amongst these, were Cromwell, Ireton, and many other officers of the army. Bradshaw, a lawyer, was president: Coke, (not sir Edward,) was solicitor for the people of England. Having examined some witnesses, who proved that the king had appeared in arms against the forces of the parliament, they pronounced a sentence of death. Three days were allowed him, between his sentence and execution: which interval, he passed with great tranquillity; chiefly in reading and devotion. All his family who then remained in England were allowed to see him. These were, the princess Elizabeth, and a little child, the duke of Gloucester: the rest having escaped.

The awful scaffold, upon which this unhappy monarch was to expiate the errors of his government, was erected in the street before White Hall. Here, having attributed his misfortunes, and his death, to the unjust sentence which he had allowed to take effect upon the earl of Strafford; and freely forgiven his enemies, even the chief instruments

of his death; at one blow, his head was severed from his body.

Charles was executed in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. His features were regular and handsome; though of rather a melancholy aspect: he was of a middle stature; strong and well proportioned. He left six children: three males—Charles, prince of Wales, James, duke of York, Henry, duke of Gloucester: and three females—Mary, princess of Orange, Elizabeth, and Henrietta.

The commons ordered a new Great Seal to be engraved; with this legend: "On the first year of freedom, by God's blessing restored, 1648." The king's statue in the exchange was thrown down; and, on the pedestal, was inscribed: "*Exit Tyrannus, Regum Ultimus.*" [The tyrant is gone; the last of the kings.]

If we take an impartial review of this memorable period, we shall find much to admire, and much the subject of regret and condemnation. We must admire the sincere patriotism of the lamented Hambden, we must regret the early obstinacy of the king, and condemn the deep dissimulation of the detested Cromwell.

Pym and the earl of Essex died before the total overthrow of their party: the former, in the beginning of the war; the latter, about two years previous to the death of Charles.

Gataker, and Usher, archbishop of Armagh, who flourished at this period, were highly eminent, not only as divines, but for their general acquirements in literature. St Christopher's, Nevis, Antigua, and Maryland, were settled in this reign. The latter colony was planted, under royal authority, by lord Baltimore.

THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649—1660.

To give a clear delineation of the government, or the religion, at this time existing in England, is a task to which the pen of the historian is unequal. That the government, shortly after the death of Charles, and the consequent extinction of the civil wars, assumed a degree of vigour, unknown before in England, or, indeed, in any other country of the world, the history of that period sufficiently evinces. But, by what title this ruling power should be denomi-

nated, is a question, to which we are unable to reply. It was not a democracy; because, though the house of lords was abolished, the semblance of a parliament, which yet remained, was not the choice of the people. The members were added, or expelled, at the caprice of its own majority; and, instead of a republic, the best calculated for the happiness of a virtuous nation, England now beheld herself under the absolute control of a despot; a many-headed despot: having exchanged the tyranny of one, for the more odious tyranny of a number.

In matters of religion, almost every one had adopted a system, which, not being derived from any scriptural authority, was peculiar to himself—founded, rather on imaginary inspiration, than on a clear principle of human reason—promulgated by vulgar declamation, and a bold hypocritical cant.

It was usual for the pretended saints of this time, to change their names, from Henry, Edward, Anthony, or William, which they regarded as heathenish, into others more sanctified and godly: even the New Testament names, such as James, Andrew, John, or Peter, were not held in so much regard, as those borrowed from the Old Testament; and sometimes a whole sentence was adopted as a name.*

The presbyterians, by whose credit the arms of the parliament had first been supported, being overthrown by the treachery of the zealots, would gladly again have embraced a well regulated monarchy, in place of the present mockery of freedom. But the great influence of Cromwell; his dark, designing, and impetuous manner, aided by a well disciplined army of fifty-thousand men devoted to his will; and his uncommon talents as a general; maintained, throughout England, a profound tranquillity.

No new writs of election were issued, except to places

* The following are the names of a jury, said to have been on a trial in the county of Suffolk.

Accepted Trevor,
Redeemed Compton,
Faint not Hewit,
Make peace Heaton,
God reward Smart,
Standfast on high Stringer,
Earth Adams,
Called Lower,
Kill sin Pimple
Return Spelman,
Be faithful Joiner
Fly debate Roberts,
Fight the good fight of faith White,
More fruit Fowler,
Hope for Bending,
Graceful Harding,
Weep not Billing,
Meek Brewer.

where the commons hoped that their own friends would be chosen; and, though the Executive Council contained many highly respectable characters, we may safely affirm, that, as Cromwell himself was a member of that body, every important measure must have required his previous consent.

In Ireland, the ascendency had been contended for by no fewer than three parties—the king, the parliament, and the natives. Butler, marquis of Ormond, lord lieutenant at the time of the king's overthrow, had surrendered, by direction of Charles, all the garrisons in that country, to the forces of the parliament, in preference to the council of Kilkenny, by whom the Irish were directed. But, the earls of Clanricarde and Inchiquin, dreading the ruin of their country, as well from its own commotions, as from the dominion of the parliament, succeeded in uniting a powerful body of the Irish and the Royalists, and successfully attacked the towns of Dundalk and Drogheda.

1649. In this situation of affairs, Cromwell, having got himself appointed lieutenant of Ireland, proceeded thither with a numerous and well appointed army. He landed at Dublin; and thence, hastened to Drogheda; then well fortified and garrisoned with three-thousand men, under sir Arthur Aston. Cromwell was not fond of a long protracted siege. Here, as in all other places, the business was soon performed. Having effected a breach, he ordered a general assault; himself and Ireton leading the attack. The town was taken, sword-in-hand; and one, only, of all the garrison, escaped the barbarous slaughter.

Wexford, and its defenders, experienced a similar fate; and, in a few months, he made himself master of the entire kingdom. Even to this day, his name is still fresh amongst the Irish. There is not a ruined castle, or delapidated mansion, throughout the country, with which, the very children are not taught to associate the name of Cromwell.

The whole authority in Scotland had fallen into the hands of Argyle, and the rigid covenanters; a party, who, though warmly opposed to the royal interest, were still more strongly averse to the independents. They therefore proclaimed the prince of Wales, under the title of Charles the second: but on condition of "his good behaviour, and strict observance of the covenant."

Charles, poor and neglected; living sometimes in Holland, sometimes in France, and occasionally in Jersey; was glad to obtain a footing in the country, in any manner; ac

cepted the crown upon such terms as were prescribed; and, after his arrival in Scotland, joined in the most degrading declarations against the conduct of his father, and the religion of his mother!

Fairfax having resigned his commission, Cromwell was declared, what he really was before, captain general of all the forces in England; and entered Scotland with an army of sixteen-thousand men. The command of his northern enemies was given to Leslie; an officer cautious and experienced. But the Scottish clergy, deceived by a frenzied imagination, forced their general to an untimely battle, at Dunbar; where Leslie was overthrown, with the loss of nearly his whole army.

Now reduced to despair, Charles embraced a resolution worthy of success. Accompanied by Hamilton and Leslie, with fourteen-thousand troops, he entered England; and advanced as far as Worcester. Cromwell, leaving general Monk to complete the subjection of Scotland, pursued the enemy, and almost totally destroyed them. Charles took refuge at Boscobel, a solitary house on the borders of Staffordshire, inhabited by one Penderell, a farmer, and his four brothers; to whom he discovered himself: and, though death awaited the knowledge of their generosity, or reward the betraying of their trust, those noble-minded peasants were faithful to their guest. Here, Charles assumed a rustic dress: and, for better concealment, mounted upon an oak; where he remained for twenty-four hours. When hidden within the branches, he saw several soldiers pass in search of him. This tree was afterwards named the "Royal Oak;" a rude painting of which, with the prince's head seen amongst the leaves, is still used throughout the British dominions, as an external appendage to an inn.

After many adventures, highly interesting and romantic, he arrived safely at Fescamp, in Normandy.

All the settlements in America, except New England, having adhered to the royal party, a few ships were despatched for their reduction; and the Bermudas, Virginia, Antigua, and Barbadoes, were obliged to surrender.

1652. By the universal pacification of the British dominions, the parliament had leisure to look abroad for employment; and the Dutch were the first that felt the weight of their successful arms. A feeling of hostility had, for some time, mutually existed; but, what eventually produced a war, was the famous Act of Navigation. This prohibited every state from carrying into England any com-

modity which was not the growth or manufacture of the country to which the vessels employed in its transportation respectively belonged. In the English navy, Blake, one of the greatest admirals of his day; also Bourne, Penn, Deane, Monk, and Ayscue; sustained the honour of the British flag. On the side of the Dutch, were, the celebrated Tromp and De Ruyter; with De Witte and Van Galen. Though, however, the states defended themselves with admirable bravery, they were unable to withstand the valour of the English, aided by the superior size of their ships of war.

1653. The parliament, grown jealous of the land-forces, had been, for some time, ardently working to depress the army, and exalt, by every means, the power and character of the navy. But, Cromwell resolved to counteract them. He entered the house, accompanied by a strong guard, and loaded them with the vilest reproaches. "For shame," cried he; "get you gone: give place to honester men; to those who will more faithfully discharge their trust. You are no longer a parliament: the Lord has done with you." Then, having ordered his soldiers to clear the house, he himself went out the last, and, putting the key into his pocket, departed to his lodgings at Whitehall.

The whole power, civil and military, of three extensive kingdoms, was now in the hands of Cromwell. In proportion to the increase of his authority, the talents of this wonderful man seemed always to expand; and, every day, he displayed new abilities, which had lain concealed until the very event which had called them into action. The name of parliament, however, seemed a necessary cover to his ambition; and, at that time, a necessary instrument of national subjection. He summoned, therefore, a legislature of his own appointment; the majority of which were the very dregs of the fanatics. This body, from the mortified appearance of its members, particularly of *one* of its canting hypocrites, received the name of Barebone's parliament. It was by them seriously proposed, to abolish the Common Law, as a badge of the Norman Conquest: to dispense with the clerical function, as being, in their opinion, a remnant of popery: to eradicate learning, as heathenish and unnecessary; to burn the records in the Tower; to efface the memory of things past, and to begin the whole system of life anew.

But, at length, even Cromwell himself growing ashamed

of his legislators, he sent to the house a party of soldiers; who dispersed them.

Through the influence of general Lambert, Cromwell was, by the voice of a few military officers, declared chief magistrate; under the title of protector, with the honourable addition of highness; subject, in some matters, to the control of a council of twenty-one. After this, a new parliament was summoned; chosen according to the ancient constitution, but, ultimately, selected, agreeably to the protector's will.

1655. England had never been so formidable as during Cromwell's usurpation. Having compelled the Dutch to sue for peace, the Spaniards next felt the vigour of her arms. In this war, Blake had an extensive field, in which to display his valour and abilities; and every where supported the national renown. Penn and Venables being sent to the West Indies, annexed to the British empire the island of Jamaica; one of the most valuable colonies that England ever possessed; if, indeed, the colonial system is not rather injurious, than beneficial, to the parent country

1658. At length, the crown was tendered to the protector. Many, even of the royalists, through a desire of settling the nation, joined, on this occasion, in the address. But the military became alarmed; and Cromwell was constrained to refuse what he would have willingly accepted. Great discontents soon prevailed throughout the kingdom. Lord Fairfax and sir William Waller, united with the royalists in a conspiracy: the army were infected with the general feeling; and every thing indicated a sudden and tremendous eruption. The anxious mind of Cromwell began to shake the firmness of his constitution: a slow fever was produced; and, to that, succeeded a tertian ague; which carried him off in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the fifth of his protectorship.

His eldest son, Richard, was appointed to succeed him. Henry, the brother of Richard, being governor of Ireland, ensured him the obedience of that kingdom; and Monk supported his authority in Scotland.

But the new protector was ill-suited to uphold the crazy grandeur of his father. Peaceable, amiable, unambitious, he was calculated to live happily in the social enjoyments of his family, amidst the delightful satisfaction of a country retirement; to which he had long been accustomed. He was soon deposed; and willingly resigned the sceptre

for the plough. Having, therefore, returned to his estate, he lived to an extreme old age; contented and undisturbed.

1660. Anarchy now held her dreadful reign. But, fortunately for the empire, Providence had prepared a welcome agent for its relief. General Monk, with most admirable address, appeared in London, with his army: a free parliament was chosen; and the temper of the new members, wearied by commotions, clearly evinced their wishes for the ancient constitution.

Every thing being arranged, the general directed Annesly, president of the council, to inform the commons, that sir John Granville, had been sent over by Charles; and was then at the door, with a letter to the House. Granville was called in: the letter was eagerly read; without a moment's delay, a committee was appointed to prepare an answer; the lords hastened to reinstate themselves in their accustomed authority; and Charles, with great solemnity, was proclaimed king. Thus, ended, after eleven years' struggle, the Commonwealth of England. How different has been the fate of the American republic; and yet how similar were their patriots. But the latter owes the stability of its admirable constitution, to the happy arrangement of its territorial members,—sufficiently united to resist the severity of war: sufficiently detached, to defeat any rash experiments in peace.

The fixed annual revenue, at this period, was about two-millions; but, by forfeitures and other means, the national income amounted to nearly two-millions-and-a-half. Interest of money was now reduced to six per cent.

Tea, coffee, and chocolate, were lately introduced into England; also, asparagus, cauliflower, and a variety of other garden vegetables.

From rather an inauspicious beginning, that orderly and respectable religious society, called Quakers, had their rise, during the commonwealth; of which sect, George Fox, of Drayton in Lancashire, was the founder.

The poets of this age, were, Milton, Waller, Southern, Cowley, and Denham. Milton, the great author of Paradise Lost, and the successful rival of the Grecian Homer, was a zealous advocate of liberty. He was employed by Oliver Cromwell, as Latin secretary to the council. Edmund Waller, nephew of the patriot Hambden, is esteemed the earliest refiner of English verse; and it is to him we are indebted for the present form of our heroic rhyme, in couplets. The measure generally used in the days of Eliza-

beth, James, and Charles the first, was the stanza of eight lines, such as Spenser employs, borrowed from the Italian; a measure very constrained and artificial. He was also much admired for the force and beauty of his parliamentary eloquence. But, in the hour of danger, his timidity allowed him to betray his party and his friends. Cowley, though, in his life time, more praised than even Milton, is now remarkable only for the display of a despicable taste; which, indeed, then too generally prevailed. Denham, in his Cooper's Hill, has given to English rhyme, a loftiness and vigour, which it had never before attained.

CHAPTER XIV.

RESTORATION.

CHARLES THE SECOND.

1660—1685.

CHARLES the first had roused the indignation of the people, by the stubbornness with which he contended for unlimited prerogative. His successor deserved their hatred, for the exercise of qualities, more reproachable to his character as an individual, and more injurious to the nation; because more perfidious. The father offended through regard to principle: the son, through the odious failing of private gratification. Charles, by his degrading compliance with the Scotch, had already given a specimen of his meanness; and his conduct throughout his reign too well accorded with that early departure from the true firmness of a man.

Now, in his thirtieth year, he united to the graces of his person, a lively wit and sound understanding; but, being of a careless disposition, he conferred his favours indiscriminately; without regard to the services of his friends, or the injuries of his enemies Monk, however, was not forgotten; having been created duke of Albemarle; an honour, to which, from his previous conduct, he was eminently entitled. Sir Edward Hyde, now earl of Clarendon, was appointed chancellor and prime minister; and the marquis of Ormond, advanced to the dignity of duke, was made steward of the household.

All judicial proceedings, transacted in the name of the Commonwealth, being ratified by the new government, the trials commenced of those who were active in the late revolution. Charles, before his arrival, had agreed to confine his prosecutions to those whom the parliament should select; and, accordingly, Harrison, Scot, Carew, Jones, and Scrope, who sat as judges on the late king, Coke, the solicitor, and a few others, were executed. Their sufferings did not interrupt the festivities of the palace. Licentious gayety and joy had banished every sentiment of decency or humanity. Indeed, the manners of the court were soon diffused throughout the kingdom; so that it is difficult to judge, whether the covered vices of the former hypocrisy or the open violations of decorum which succeeded, were the most injurious.

In Scotland, the marquis of Argyle was chosen as a victim; and, though no further criminal than many thousands who, also, had participated in the civil wars, he was condemned to die. At his trial, Albemarle produced the private letters of the marquis; a treacherous proceeding, which has excited the indignation of every honourable mind.

The settlement of Ireland was a work of considerable difficulty. Nearly all the valuable lands in that country had been given to those who lent money to the parliament, as a means of suppressing the rebellion; or to the soldiers, in payment of arrears. But, to prevent confusion and bloodshed, all parties seemed willing to make abatements from their claims; and the new holders agreed to relinquish a fourth of their possessions.

1661. A new parliament was now assembled. The majority consisted of high-churchmen and royalists. Ancient establishments were restored, and efficient measures taken to prevent the smallest degree of toleration, to all who refused conformance with the liturgy of the court. Charles would willingly have dispensed with this severity; not because he cherished the generous principles of indulgence, but, that if he harboured within his breast any feelings of religion, they inclined towards the Roman Catholic; which, by the late regulation, was treated with as little respect as the presbyterian, or the puritan. On this occasion, upwards of two-thousand clergymen sacrificed their temporal interest to the dictates of an approving conscience

In the ensuing year, the king concluded a bargain, by which he received, in marriage, Catherine of Portugal; with a fortune of five-hundred-thousand pounds, and two

fortresses—Tangier and Bombay. The money produced a seasonable relief to his private necessities; and the fortresses, a certain expenditure to his affectionate subjects. The festivity of the espousals was further enlivened by the execution of three regicides; Berkstead, Cobbet, and Okey: who had eluded the former vigilance of parliament. Vane, who had been passed over, fell a sacrifice to the opinions of the present parliament; and, contrary to a positive law, suffered the punishment of death.

1664. The close union with Holland, which, with small interruption, had subsisted nearly seventy years, was again broken, in subservience to the views of commerce. The Dutch, by industry and frugality, being enabled to undersell the English merchants in every market, the government now endeavoured to usurp this advantage, by the unjust influence of naval superiority. The duke of York (himself a member of a commercial company, an enemy to the religion of the Dutch, and an *amateur* of marine enterprises) was an active stimulator of this iniquitous attack. Sir Robert Holmes was secretly despatched to the coast of Africa; where, he seized their shipping and their settlements: thence, he steered for America, and took possession of Nova Belgia, since called New Jersey and New York.

The affairs of the Dutch were conducted by the virtuous and celebrated John De Witt; who lost not a moment in retaliation. The British Channel became the scene of frequent and well contested engagements; in which, neither party could boast of much superiority. The English fleet was principally commanded by the duke of York, prince Rupert, the earl of Sandwich, Albemarle, Allen, Berkely, and Sprague: the Dutch, by De Ruyter, young Tromp, son of the famous Tromp, killed in the former war, aided by many others of celebrity. The French king, Louis the fourteenth, prepared a fleet, and declared in favour of the States. In the Channel, an engagement ensued; in which the English, after a contest of four days, gained over the combined fleet a decided victory.

1666. A dreadful plague which occurred in London, and, in one year, swept off a hundred-thousand inhabitants, was now succeeded by another signal calamity. A fire commenced in a baker's shop in that city, and consumed four-hundred streets; comprising thirteen-thousand houses. It has, however, proved beneficial. The old wooden buildings have been replaced by houses of brick or stone,

more regularly arranged. But there remains one trace of that visitation, which is much to be regretted. The Monument, then erected, bears an inscription, falsely imputing the destruction to the Catholics.*

Charles, having received a grant from parliament, of nearly two-millions, embraced the first opportunity of ending hostilities. He had a prospect of small benefit from the war, but an urgent occasion for the supply. A peace was concluded at Breda; by which, all that England gained was Nova Belgia, in return for the blood of her citizens and the honour of the crown.

As it was necessary that some minister should be sacrificed, to appease the people and the parliament, the earl of Clarendon was chosen for the victim. This eminent character laboured under the combined hatred of every party. By impartiality, he had excited the enmity of the religious sects; always jealous of each other: by opposing his licentiousness, he had caused the displeasure of the king. He was, accordingly, banished from the country, and retired into France; where he composed his much admired history of the civil wars.

1668. It was now Louis's turn to attack his defenceless neighbours. As he had already overrun the Spanish Netherlands, and it was evident that the States were the next object of his ambition, Charles deemed it expedient to restrain his advances, and formed a defensive alliance with the Dutch. To this, succeeded a change in the administration. All the virtuous ministers were excluded; and the national affairs intrusted to five persons—Clifford Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington, and Lauderdale; known by the appellation of the Cabal; a title formed by the initial letters of their names. Of these infamous ministers, lord Ashley, afterwards created earl of Shaftesbury, and the duke of Buckingham, were the most corrupt. Over this dishonourable cabal, the gold of Louis easily prevailed. Even Charles himself became a willing participator in the bribes of France. By means of the dutchess of Orleans, who was Charles's sister, and the caresses of a handsome mistress, which she brought him, he relinguished every principle of honour; and made an arrangement for the destruction of

* This imputation is repelled by Pope, in the following couplet:

"Where London's column, pointing to the skies,
Like a tall bully, lifts its head, and lies"

Holland, and the overthrow of the national religion of England.

1671. The duke of York at this time openly declared himself a Roman Catholic; which acknowledgment, as he was heir apparent to the crown, gave considerable alarm.—Sir William Temple, the virtuous ambassador to the States of Holland, is, soon afterwards, recalled: every insult is offered to the Dutch: a piratical attempt is made to intercept their Smyrna fleet; and, without any ground for hostilities, they are involved in war. Louis now pours down his forces like a torrent, and enters their strong towns in rapid succession. But the States, having appointed the young prince of Orange to command their armies, he, assisted by the Imperialists, drives the haughty Louis, with precipitation, from all his conquests—A change in the English ministry soon followed. Shaftesbury was dismissed, and sir Heneage Finch appointed chancellor, in his place To this, succeeded a separate peace with Holland; and an adjournment of the parliament.

When the legislature was again assembled, the commons in appropriating the supplies, evinced an open distrust of the king; and displayed the utmost jealousy of the duke of York, as well as of all who professed a similar religion This body was now divided into the court and the country party. Into the former, some were enlisted by offices and bribes; but many acted entirely from principle. To the country party, several, likewise, were attached by private views, or by faction; but numbers had no other object than the public good.

In the midst of those violent contentions, which again threatened the nation with civil wars, the cry of a plot resounded in the city; and soon spread its baneful influence throughout the kingdom. The detail, or even the mention of an occurrence, at once so puerile and absurd, though producing effects so sanguinary and disgraceful, we should willingly omit; but, that the recital may be, hereafter, useful, in guarding against blind credulity and intolerance.—

1678. Whilst the king was walking in the Park, he was accosted by one Kirby, a chemist: "Sir," said he, "keep within your company: your enemies have a design upon your life: you may be shot in this very walk." Being asked the reason of this strange address, Kirby replied, that two men, called Grove and Pickering, had engaged to shoot him; and that sir George Wakeman, the queen's physician, had undertaken to poison him. An in-

quiry was instituted. This brought forward many atrocious ruffians; amongst whom, none were so highly infamous as Titus Oates and William Bedloe; men who had been guilty of almost every crime in the catalogue of human vices. Oates said, that he had been employed by the Jesuits: that he had received three blows with a stick and a box on the ear, from the provincial of that order, for having revealed their conspiracy; and, dreading a still severer punishment, had concealed himself, and nearly perished for want of bread: that the pope had declared himself entitled to the possession of England and Ireland, on account of the heresy of prince and people; that new crown officers and churchmen were appointed; and immense preparations made for invasion: that four assassins, at twenty guineas a piece, were employed to stab the king; and that Coleman, secretary to the late dutchess of York, had given the messenger who carried them the orders, *a guinea*, to quicken his diligence.

After this, the city prepared for defence, as if an enemy were at the gates; which induced sir Thomas Player, the chamberlain, to exclaim, that were it not for such precautions, *all the citizens might rise next morning with their throats cut.*

Sir George Wakeman and Coleman, with many others, were brought to trial. The former was acquitted; but Coleman, and several more, were found guilty and executed. Two years afterwards, the venerable lord Stafford, a catholic nobleman, who had been confined as a participator in this pretended conspiracy, was impeached by the house of lords; by whom, after a trial of six days, he was pronounced guilty. In all these cases, the witnesses were the most profligate of the human race: their testimony was contradicted, not only by themselves, but by the clearest evidence on the part of the accused; and, still further by the solemn declarations of the unfortunate sufferers, at the place of execution.

Charles now found it expedient to dissolve the parliament. It had existed, without any general election of the commons, since the second year of his reign; a period of seventeen years; guided, rather by the impulse of party violence, than the dispassionate influence of patriotic integrity. But, in the following year, he was constrained to order a new election. Besides, that he might, in some measure, appease the national ferment, he desired his brother to withdraw to the Continent; with which request,

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the duke readily complied. But Charles found the present parliament, particularly the lower house, more refractory than even the former. In concert, therefore, with sir William Temple, a new council was formed; into which, were admitted, many of those statesmen who enjoyed the confidence of the people; and the king declared, that without their advice, he would not transact any business of importance. The earls of Essex and Sunderland, viscount Halifax, and Temple, formed the cabinet; and, contrary to the remonstrance of the latter, Shaftesbury, who, after the dissolution of the Cabal, had espoused, with violence, the popular side, was made president of the privy council. In the house of commons, a bill was passed, by a large majority, for totally excluding the duke from the crown; but it did not become a law. Soon afterwards, the two houses, having a most violent altercation as to their respective privileges, the king, without advising with his council, dissolved the parliament.

1679. By the tyrannical conduct of Lauderdale and the duke of York, the people in Scotland were at length driven to open rebellion. Though prelacy had been abolished, and the presbyterian form of worship established there, soon after the reformation; yet, an exact compliance with the episcopal form of worship was now enforced with so rigorous and severe penalties, that the people rose in arms, and put to death the archbishop of St. Andrews. English soldiers were dispersed over the country, and power was given to all commissioned officers to compel every one they met to take a prescribed oath; and instantly to shoot any person that refused. Three women, who declared they would not take it, were condemned to a capital punishment, by drowning. One of these was an elderly woman, the other two were young: one of the latter was eighteen years of age; the other, only thirteen. Even these violent persecutors were ashamed to put the youngest to death: but the other two were tied to stakes, within the sea-mark, at low water; a contrivance, which rendered their death lingering and dreadful. The elderly woman was placed the farthest in, and, by the rising of the waters, was first drowned. The younger, partly terrified by the view of her companion's death, partly overcome by the entreaties of her friends, was prevailed on to say *God save the king*. Immediately, she was loosened from the stake: but, the officer who guarded the execution, having again required her to take the oath, on her refusal, he or

dered her instantly to be plunged into the water; where she was held until every sign of life was extinct.

To quell the insurrection in Scotland, the king despatched a body of troops, under the duke of Monmouth. This popular nobleman, a member of the established church, who makes a conspicuous figure in the history of that age, was a natural son of the king, and by the intrigues of the earl of Shaftesbury, was inspired with the hope of succeeding to the crown. Monmouth encountered the Scottish malcontents at Bothwel-Bridge, between Hamilton and Glasgow; and soon put them to flight.—Shortly afterwards, the king, being dangerously ill, was visited by the duke of York; at whose suggestions, Monmouth was sent out of the kingdom.

1681. At this time, there was summoned another parliament; which, for the greater security of the king and his adherents, against the violence of the people, was ordered to meet at Oxford. The country party had lately received the name of Whigs; the court faction that of Tories; and mutual animosity rose to so alarming a height, that the king thought it expedient again to dissolve them.

There is the same difference between the whigs and the tories, as subsisted between the plebeians and the patricians of ancient Rome. The latter would have conferred all power, honours, and riches, upon a few individuals, whilst the great body of the people were kept in a state of poverty and dependence: the former wished to preserve as much equality amongst the different ranks of men, as is consistent with the ends of civil government.

During the latter part of his reign, Charles continued to rule without parliaments, and proceeded to invade, without fear or remorse, the most valuable privileges of his subjects. He deprived the city of London, and most of the corporations in England, of their charters; and, though they were afterwards restored, yet, it was on conditions so precarious, that the rights of the people were left entirely at the king's mercy.

1683. There was now formed a regular project of insurrection. A council of six was erected; consisting of Monmouth, Russel, Essex, Algernon Sydney, lord Howard, and John Hambden, grandson of the great parliamentary leader. These men differed extremely in their views. Essex and Sydney were advocates for a common wealth: Russel and Hambden aimed only at the exclusion of the duke of York: lord Howard was a man of no princi-

ple; and Monmouth intended to acquire the crown for himself. Notwithstanding this discordance, their common hatred of the duke of York united them into one party. There was also an inferior order of conspirators, whose meetings were called the Rye House Plot; which, in addition to the insurrection, carried on other schemes, unknown to the former. Through the treachery of some of these subordinates, intelligence was given to government. Monmouth absconded: Russel, Essex, Sydney, Hambden, and Howard, were arrested. Russel and Sydney, both eminent for their virtues, suffered death, from the infidelity of Howard, and the violence and inhumanity of chief justice Jefferies; who prevailed on a partial jury to give a verdict contrary to the evidence. Hambden was fined forty-thousand pounds: Essex was found dead in prison; having, according to the inquest, committed suicide.

1685. It was supposed by some, that the king had at length determined to dismiss his obnoxious ministers, and throw himself on the affection of his subjects. But, amidst these virtuous designs, (which, it is probable, he never did entertain,) he was seized with an apoplexy; that, in a few days, carried him off, in the fifty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fifth of his reign.

On his death-bed, he received the sacrament from a Roman Catholic clergyman.

In 1671, an officer who had served in Cromwell's army, named Blood, had nearly succeeded in carrying off the crown and other regalia, from the Tower. He had wounded and bound Edwards, the keeper of the jewel-office, and had escaped from that fortress with his prey, when he was overtaken and seized. This man had, a little before, been concerned in an attempt much more criminal, and nearly as hazardous. Having been attainted in Ireland for endeavouring to raise an insurrection there, and some of his accomplices having been capitally punished, he determined to be revenged upon the duke of Ormond, the lord lieutenant. Having, by artifice, drawn off the duke's footman, he attacked his coach, as it drove in the night-time, through St. James' Street in London; and made himself master of his person. He might here have finished his crime, had he not meditated refinement in his revenge. He resolved to hang the duke at Tyburn, the place for executing the vilest criminals; and, for that purpose, he bound him, and mounted him on horse-back, behind one of his companions. They were advanced some distance into the fields, when the

duke succeeded in throwing himself to the ground, and brought down with him the assassin to whom he was fastened. They were struggling together in the mire, when the duke's servants, whom the alarm had now reached, came up, and saved him; and Blood, with his companions, firing their pistols in a hurry at the duke, rode off, and saved themselves by means of the darkness.

Blood having been soon afterwards imprisoned, the king was moved, by an idle curiosity, to see and speak with a person so noted for his courage and his crimes. Blood might now esteem himself secure of a pardon. Charles bestowed upon him an estate of four-hundred pounds a year; encouraged his attendance about his person; and, whilst old Edwards, who had bravely ventured his life in defending the regalia, was neglected and forgotten, this man, who deserved to be detested as a monster, became a kind of favourite.

On the restoration, the king consented to turn all the military tenures, established at the Conquest, (with only one exception) into what is called socage, or payment of a common rent, in consideration of a settled revenue; and thus, the feudal system was abolished, though many of the rules of English law, founded on its principles, still retain their force. Many other salutary changes were extorted from this tyrannical sovereign. Besides having their lands delivered from the slavery of military tenures, his subjects had their bodies freed from arbitrary imprisonment, by the Habeas Corpus act; and their minds from the tyranny of superstitious bigotry, by the abolition of the law for burning heretics; the last badge of persecution in the English law.

It is said, that Andrew Marvell, a member for Hull in this reign, was the last person in England that received wages from his constituents. Two shillings a day, the allowance to a burgess, was so considerable a sum in ancient times, that there are many instances in which the boroughs petitioned to be excused from sending members to parliament; and, it is remarkable, that from about the middle of Edward the third's reign, to the end of Henry the fourth's, the sheriff of Lancashire returned as an excuse, "that there are not any cities or boroughs within the county of Lancaster, out of which any citizens or burgesses ought or are used to go to the said parliament; nor can they, by reason of their inability and poverty."*

* "Non sunt aliqui civitates seu burgi infra comitatem Lancastriæ,

Immediately after the Restoration, Wilkins, bishop of Chester, brother-in-law of Cromwell, with a few other men of philosophical taste, established the Royal Society of London. But, to this institution, Charles contributed only his countenance; for, though he was a great admirer of the sciences, his courtiers and his mistresses kept him so extremely poor, that he was unable to give pecuniary assistance. In this reign, was enacted, the first law for establishing turnpikes: sea-signals were invented by the duke of York: and a charter was granted to the Hudson's Bay Company.

The poets, who properly fall under our present division, are, Butler, and Cotton; Dryden, Otway, and Roscommon. Samuel Butler was author of the celebrated satirical poem of Hudibras; the action of which is laid in the time of Cromwell. The hero is a fanatical justice of the peace; who, through the confidence of authority, and the impulse of zealous ignorance, ranges the country, to repress superstition, correct abuses, and prevent the exercise of innocent amusement. Cotton wrote an amusing travestie of the Æneid.—Scarcely any man has employed his pen so variously as Dryden: he was a critic, and a dramatist; a modernizer of obsolete literature, and a translator. As a poet, he was either serious, satirical, or encomiastic; equally ready to praise the dark hypocrisy of Cromwell, or the open licentiousness of Charles. His most esteemed work is his translation of Virgil.—Otway, whose principal talent lay in moving the passions, has afforded the admirers of the tragic drama a rich feast, in his Orphan, and in his Venice Preserved.—Wentworth Dillon, earl of Roscommon, has left some fine translations from the Latin; amongst which, Horace's Art of Poetry is thought to be the best. Dennis is celebrated as a critic; Wycherley, as a contributor to the comic drama; and Bunyan, for his Pilgrim's Progress. The Oriental languages were indefatigably studied by Dr. Thomas Hyde. Antiquities employed the industrious Ware, Skinner, and sir William Dugdale. Mathematics were attended with increasing ardour James Gregory and Hobbes, Wallis, and John Flamsteed, rivalled the most illustrious philosophers of the European continent. Gregory was the inventor of the reflecting telescope; and

de quibus aliqui cives vel burgenses addictum parliamentum venire debent seu solent; nec possunt, propter eorum debilitatem et paupertatem "

Flamsteed, for his extensive discoveries, was appointed astronomer at Greenwich: the observatory having been raised under his directions.

Sir Matthew Hale, chief justice of the king's bench, was a highly respected character, and wrote on a variety of subjects. Of his several works, the "Pleas of the Crown," and the "Original Institution, Power, and Jurisdiction of Parliaments," are the most deserving of attention. In his time, the judges were not so attentive as at the present day, in preserving a clear conscience; but this great lawyer formed an amiable contrast to the votaries of corruption. In one of his circuits, a gentleman, who had a trial at the assizes, sent him a buck for his table. When sir Matthew heard his name called, he asked, if he was not the same person who had sent him the venison; and finding that he was, he told him, that he could not suffer the trial to go on until he paid him for his buck. It was accordingly paid for; and the gentleman withdrew his record.

In consideration of admiral Penn's services, the king, in the year 1681, granted to that officer's son, William, the power of colonizing the great tract of country, called, after the admiral, Pennsylvania.

A remarkable instance of longevity had been shown in the reign of Charles I; when, Thomas Parr, a labouring man of Yorkshire, who had lived in ten reigns, completed one-hundred-and-sixty years; and James Bowels of Killingsworth, died in the time of the Commonwealth, at the great age of a hundred-and-fifty-two. But a still more uncommon length of years was attained by Henry Jenkins, of Yorkshire, who died in 1670; having completed one-hundred-and-sixty-nine.

REVOLUTION.

JAMES THE SECOND.

1685—1689

The late king, not having had any legitimate children was succeeded by his only brother, James, duke of York Unfortunately for himself, and for the empire, he professed a religion different from that of the established church; the members of which, in England, together with the presbyterians, outnumbered the Roman Catholics in the proportion of one-hundred to one.

No declarations could appear more fair, than those which the king made on assembling the council. "It has been reported," he said, "that I have imbibed tyrannical principles: but I am determined never to violate the laws of England. They are sufficient to make me as great a monarch as I can wish; and I shall, as heretofore, venture my life, in defence of the nation, and its just liberties and rights."

Amongst the numerous addresses, which James received from his subjects, the congratulation of the Quakers is a little singular. "We are come," said they, "to testify our sorrow for the death of our good friend, Charles, and our joy for thy being made our governor. We are told, that thou art not of the persuasion of the church of England, no more than we. Wherefore, we hope thou wilt grant us the same liberty which thou allowest thyself: which doing, we wish thee all manner of happiness."

Soon, however, the public suspicion was realized. He issued orders for illegally collecting duties; despatched to Rome an agent, to make submissions to the pope; and received from him a nuncio, though, by so doing, he infringed an established law. He recalled the duke of Ormond from the government of Ireland; and, in his place, appointed Talbot, earl of Tyrconnel; who carried over with him, as chancellor, one Fitton; a man who was taken from a jail; who had been convicted of forgery and other crimes; and who, as well as Tyrconnel, was chosen merely on account of his great zeal for the religion of his master. The officers and soldiers, in that kingdom, who professed the reformed religion, were disbanded; stripped of their clothing, and turned out upon the public. In every department, throughout the empire, men were appointed to official duties without having taken the legal test. Corporations were deprived of their charters, parliamentary elections, in many places, were made by the sole authority of the king; and the parliament itself was threatened with the royal prerogative, in case of opposition to his wishes.

The satisfaction which James enjoyed by these oppressions, was suddenly interrupted. The duke of Monmouth, having procured a few ships in Holland, arrived at Lime, in Dorsetshire; and, alleging that his mother had been married to Charles the second, openly declared himself the legitimate heir of the English throne. Though, on landing, he had scarcely one-hundred followers; yet, so great was his popularity, that, in a few days upwards of six-thousand men crowded to his standard.

To check his progress, three-thousand well disciplined troops, under the command of the earl of Feversham and lord Churchill, (afterwards duke of Marlborough) were sent forward by the king. At Sedgemoor, near Bridgewater, a battle ensued. Great bravery was displayed by the country forces; but, through the bad generalship of Monmouth, and the cowardice of lord Gray, who commanded the cavalry, they were defeated. Monmouth fled from the field of battle, until his horse sunk, exhausted by fatigue. He then changed clothes with a peasant; and, at last, was found, covered over with fern, in the bottom of a ditch—his body emaciated by hunger; his mind depressed by the recollection of the past, and the prospect of the future. Soon, however, this unhappy nobleman ended his career upon the scaffold. He warned the executioner not to fall into the error which he had committed in beheading lord Russel; when it had been necessary to repeat the blow. But, this precaution served only to dismay him. He made a feeble stroke at Monmouth, who raised his head from the block, and looked him in the face, as if reproaching him with his failure. He gently laid down his head a second time; and the executioner struck him again and again, without effect He then threw aside the axe, and cried out that he was incapable of finishing the bloody office. But the sheriff compelled him to renew the attempt; and, at two strokes more his head was severed from his body.

Had Monmouth's design succeeded, the miseries of the nation would have been increased; not alleviated. Experience has shown, that it is a bad remedy to exchange tyranny for usurpation.

The attempts of the marquis of Argyle, who, in concert with Monmouth, had landed in Scotland, were equally unsuccessful. That nobleman, who, after being condemned in the preceding reign, had escaped into Holland, was now taken prisoner, and executed.

The edict of Nantz, which Henry the fourth had enacted in favour of the protestants, was, by the impolicy of Louis revoked; and, in consequence, above half a million, of his most industrious subjects, deserted France; nearly fifty-thousand of whom arrived in England. This measure of the French king, whilst it established, in Great Britain, many of his most valuable manufactures, especially silk, served to increase the general apprehensions for the national religion. Another event, too, occurred, which pro-
1688. duced a considerable sensation. This was, the birth

of a royal heir; who received the usual title of prince of Wales.

National grievances were now at their greatest height. The appellation of whig or tory was no longer heard. All lovers of their country joined to throw off the oppressive burthen, and applied to the prince of Orange for assistance. The bishop of London, the earls of Danby, Nottingham, Devonshire, and Dorset; the duke of Norfolk, the marquis of Halifax, the lords Lovelace, Delamare, Paulet, and Eland; Messrs. Hambden, Powle, and Lester; besides many eminent citizens of London—all these persons, though of opposite parties, concurred in the application.

William, prince of Orange, was a maternal grandson of Charles the first, and a maternal nephew and son-in-law of James; having been married, in the late reign, to the princess Mary.

With the utmost secrecy and expedition, the prince prepared a fleet of five-hundred vessels, and an army of fourteen-thousand men; with which, he sailed from Helvoet-Sluys, and arrived safely in Torbay. All England was soon in commotion. In a few days, the greater part of the English army had gone over to him. James, agitated and alarmed, determined to escape to France; and sent off, before him, the queen and the infant prince. He himself, accompanied only by sir Edward Hales, disappeared in the night; and, having thrown the great seal of England into the Thames, endeavoured to reach a ship which waited for him near the mouth of the river. But, being seized by the populace at Feversham, he was taken back to London.

All now was anarchy and suspense. The Dutch guards took possession of the palace; and the king, deserted by his friends, and despised by his enemies, was suffered quietly to withdraw. He embarked at Rochester; and thence proceeded to Ambleteuse, in France.—Thus, was the deliverance of England effected; and with very little effusion of blood: as only a few soldiers were killed, in an accidental skirmish.

1689 For the purpose of settling the government, a convention was assembled. It consisted of all the members who had sat in the house of commons, during any of the parliaments of Charles the second; as those of James were illegal: also, the mayor, aldermen, and fifty of the common council of London. They made the following declaration; which received the concurrence of the peers: "That, king James the second, having endeav-

oured to subvert the constitution of the kingdom, by breaking the original contract between king and people; and having, by the advice of wicked counsellors, violated the fundamental laws, and withdrawn himself out of the kingdom, has abdicated the government; and that the throne is thereby vacant."

A bill was then passed, which excluded Roman Catholics from the regal office, and settled the crown on the prince and princess of Orange and her issue; the sole administration to remain in the prince; after their death, on the princess Anne, second daughter of king James, and wife of prince George of Denmark, and her issue; and lastly, on the heirs of the prince himself.

To this settlement, was annexed a Declaration of Rights; in which, all those matters, between the king and the people, so often the subjects of dispute, were finally determined; and, thus, the royal prerogative was more narrowly circumscribed than at any former period of the English government.

James was twice married: first, to Anne Hyde, daughter of the earl of Clarendon; and afterwards to Maria Josepha, sister of the duke of Modena. By his first queen, who was of the protestant faith, he had eight children; two only of whom were at this time living—Mary, married to the prince of Orange, and Anne, the consort of prince George of Denmark. By his second, who was a Roman Catholic, he had five children; of whom, there was now alive one son, James, prince of Wales.

The national debt, at the revolution, amounted to about a million sterling: the fleet consisted of one-hundred-and-seventy vessels, and required forty-two-thousand men.

CHAPTER XV.

WILLIAM AND MARY.

1689—1702.

THE principal ministers, at this time, were, the earls of Nottingham and Shrewsbury, the marquis of Halifax, and Bentinck, created earl of Portland; who was the greatest favourite of the king. In religious affairs, William was a man of considerable moderation; and, being a presbyterian,

naturally used his influence with parliament, to obtain, for all sects of dissenters from the established church, some degree of toleration; in which, he was successful. That he would have extended to the Roman Catholics the same protection, we have just reason to believe; but the ferment then existing in England, would have rendered abortive every exertion in their favour.

In Scotland, the duke of Hamilton, and all the presbyterians, declared for William: the duke of Gordon, and his friends, held out in favour of James. At length, a smart engagement ensued, at the pass of Killycrankie, in Perthshire; where, the Highlanders, headed by lord Dundee, defeated the English under general Mackay. In this battle, twelve-hundred of the latter were killed: but Dundee having fallen, the affairs of his party, thenceforward, went to ruin; and, in a short time, all the clans submitted to the English.

Ireland, the population of which was then, as it is now mostly Roman Catholic, maintained allegiance to the exiled monarch; affording him a flattering prospect of success Having therefore received from the king of France every assistance that such an expedition required, James, accompanied by a splendid retinue, sailed from Brest; and arrived, on the 22nd of March, at Kinsale. In a few days afterwards, he made a public entry into Dublin. Then, having summoned a parliament to meet in the ensuing May, he departed for the north, and took his post before the walls of Derry.

This city, being an English settlement, resolved to defend itself to the last, against king James; and maintained one of the most obstinate sieges that history records. Deserted by the commander, who saw no probability of success, the townsmen chose for their governors, George Walker, rector of Donaghmore, and major Baker. Their situation was deplorable. Their fortifications were only trifling: their cannon, which did not exceed twenty pieces, were badly mounted: they had not one engineer to direct their operations; and were besieged by a king, in person, at the head of a formidable army, with experienced officers, and every engine either for a siege or battle. After being many times repulsed, James returned to Dublin; having left the command to the French general, Rosene. This officer disgraced his memory, by his subsequent behaviour in the siege; having acted in the most barbarous manner, contrary even to the express orders of his employ-

er. The garrison, for want of food, were now reduced to extremity; but an English frigate, having broken the boom which had been laid across the river, brought them a joyful relief; and the besiegers abandoned the attack; after losing before the place nine-thousand men.

By the inattention of the English administration, James had been six months in Ireland before an army was sent over to oppose him. In the month of August, duke Schomberg, with ten-thousand men, landed near Carrickfergus; of which place, he got possession, and, subsequently, of Belfast, Newry, and Dundalk: but, in the neighbourhood of the latter, he remained encamped, upon low, swampy ground, until half his army fell victims to a contagious disorder.

1690. In the middle of June, William himself, attended by prince George of Denmark, the duke of Ormond, the earl of Stair, and many more persons of distinction landed at Carrickfergus. Thence, he proceeded for Belfast; where he was met by Schomberg. Having rested there for a few days, he passed through Lisburn and Hillsborough, to Loughbrickland; where, on reviewing his army, he found that it amounted to thirty-six-thousand effective men. He then marched to Dundalk; and, taking the road through Ardee, arrived on the left bank of the Boyne, about three miles above Drogheda. On the opposite bank, James was prepared to oppose him; with an army composed of Irish and French, nearly equal in number to his adversary's. The ground on which James's army stood, was much exposed to the fire of his enemy. Rising gradually from the river, it forms an inclined plane, receding about two miles; so that every shot from the other side must take effect: and its bank offers to an assailant not the smallest natural obstruction. William had every advantage that a general could demand. The bank upon which he stood is elevated at least twenty feet above the river, presenting, along its entire front, a commanding battery. From this, his cannon could play upon the enemy, directly over the heads of his own men, during the crossing of the river, which, with little difficulty, is fordable. On his right, there winded a deep ravine, which extended to the Boyne, and afforded a cover to his troops, when approaching to the attack. William, when he had leisure to view from this situation the surrounding country, delighted with its beauty and fertility, exclaimed—"This, indeed, is a kingdom worthy of a battle."

In the morning, at six o'clock, general Douglas, with the younger Schomberg and the earl of Portland, marched towards Slane bridge; and, with little opposition, passed the river. The Irish troops then faced about, and hastily retreated to Duleek. At this moment, king William's main body, consisting principally of the Dutch guards and some battalions of English, crossed the river, under a general discharge of artillery. The elder Schomberg, who led on the attack, being killed by the fire of his own men, the battle was for some time doubtful; but William, having gone over with his left wing, after a hard contested action, gained a complete victory.

In this memorable engagement, the French and Swiss auxiliaries sustained the contest with intrepidity and perseverance; but the Irish displayed none of that undaunted bravery, which has covered them with glory when abroad James, who remained during the action on the hill of Dunmore, which overlooked the field of battle, retreated through Dublin, to Waterford. There, he embarked; and, in a few days, arrived in France.

At the scene of action, upon a small projecting rock on the left bank of the Boyne, there is erected a handsome obelisk, with an inscription commemorative of his defeat

But William met a severe repulse at Limerick. This place was commanded by Boisseleau; who, ably assisted by colonel Sarsfield, drove the king from before its walls with considerable loss. After this, he embarked at Duncannon, and returned to England. His affairs, however, were soon retrieved. Marlborough having arrived in Ireland, in a few days reduced the towns of Cork and Kinsale. At Athlone and Aughrim, the adherents of James were equally unfortunate. General Ginckel, having taken the former, proceeded to Aughrim; where, after a most gallant resistance by the French general, St. Ruth, who was killed in the action, the Irish army were overthrown. They then retreated to Limerick, resolved to make there a final stand; in the hope of receiving from France succours sufficient to restore their affairs, or of obtaining favourable terms from the court of England.

1691. Limerick was now the only place of importance unsubdued. It was invested by general Ginckel, who, after a severe bombardment, forced it to capitulate; and, on the fourth of October, the articles of surrender were completed. This celebrated treaty extended to all places in the kingdom, that were yet in the hands of the

Irish: it restored to the Roman Catholics, the same degree of religious liberty, enjoyed by them in the reign of Charles the second; and their estates, privileges, and immunities. It allowed the inhabitants of all the garrisons to remove their goods, without search, or payment of duty; and all who were inclined, to leave the kingdom, and settle in any country, except England or Scotland. In consequence, twelve-thousand men emigrated to France; where, James thanked them for their loyalty, and assured them, that the French king had already given orders for their reception.

To dwell upon the numerous conspiracies in England, which successively kept the nation in alarm: to carry our readers over that extensive field upon the Continent, in which the ambition of the king of France was combated, with various fortune, by the bravery of William and his allies; or to detail the numerous operations of the contending navies; would produce neither interest, nor pleasure, nor admiration. We can feel no interest in conspiracies, of which the agents and the effects are alike forgotten: no pleasure in the recital of massacre and ruin; nor admiration in the review of sea-fights, not conspicuous for a display either of heroism or skill. Of all the admirals, the most prominent was Rooke: the most remarkable sieges were those of Namur. This place, situated at the confluence of the Mease and Sambre, was besieged by Louis the fourteenth, at the head of one-hundred-and-twenty-thousand men; and taken, in sight of king William's army, after an obstinate resistance. Though, however, Vauban the celebrated engineer, had exhausted his whole art in its defence, it was retaken by the allied forces, under William's command.

In the preceding year, the queen was seized with the small pox; which caused her death, in the thirty-third year of her age.

1697. After a tedious and sanguinary contest, peace was concluded at Ryswick, in Holland. From this period, nothing claiming particular attention, occurred, until the death of James; which happened at St. Germains, in four years after that of his daughter Mary. Contrary to an article in the treaty of Ryswick, Louis proclaimed the prince of Wales, James's son, king of England; which acknowledgment, in the course of time, produced important consequences.

1702. In the following spring, the bustling life of the martial William closed. When he had reached the fifty-second year of his age, and the fourteenth of his reign, he exchanged the gaudy trappings of the soldier, for the plain habiliments of the tomb. This prince was of the middle stature: he had an aquiline nose, and sparkling eyes. In the palace, he was unpleasing and reserved: in battle, free, spirited, and cheerful.

In this reign, the linen manufacture of Ireland was promoted, and the Bank of England established; the notes of which, owing to the public distress arising from the immense expenses of the war, were, for a while, twenty per cent. below their nominal value. About the same time, commenced also in England, the system of private banking; before which, all money transactions were managed by the goldsmiths.

The celebrated Peter the Great of Russia at this time visited England; and attended chiefly to acquiring the art of ship-building.

William had the honour of employing in his service, those two transcendent luminaries of science—sir Isaac Newton, and John Locke. Of all the philosophers, or mathematicians, that the world ever produced, sir Isaac Newton was the greatest. He was born at Woolsthorp, near Grantham, in Lincolnshire, in 1642, and died in 1726, in the eighty-fifth year of his age; universally admired for his amiable disposition. His great works are, his Mathematical Principles of Natural Philosophy, his Optics, and his Fluxions; of which science, he was the inventor. If we say that Locke, as a profound philosopher, has had no superior, except Newton, we accord with the general opinion. His most celebrated performance is the Essay on Human Understanding.

Robert Boyle was one of the most illustrious and virtuous men that ever employed their lives in the developement of nature. His completion of the air-pump, in which he was aided by the mechanical genius of the astronomer, Hooke, deserves recording: though it is a very small portion of his successful labours. Halley, also, and David, nephew of James, Gregory, were accomplished mathematicians: Anthony Ashley Cooper, lord Shaftesbury, grandson of the infamous member of the Cabal, reflected lustre upon his title, by his devotion to the cause of freedom, and by his admirable "Characteristics:" nor can too much veneration be admit-

ted for sir John Holt; a lawyer, as bold and patriotic in the senate, as he was learned and incorruptible on the bench.

Dr. Tillotson was archbishop of Canterbury; and Burnet, who wrote the History of the Reformation, enjoyed the see of Salisbury.

This, and the succeeding reign, are conspicuous for their poetical productions. The poets of this period were, Pomfret, Garth, Lee, Prior, Congreve, and sir Richard Blackmore. The best written of the first mentioned, is his "Choice;" a work which has been as much read as almost any in our language. Garth was a patron of learning, was distinguished for his own literature, his knowledge of medicine; and, still more, for his exertions in favour of the poor. He is the author of the Dispensary; a poem written principally to defend the utility of assisting the needy with medicine and advice. Prior was first brought into notice by his City Mouse and Country Mouse, written, in conjunction with Mr. Montague, (afterwards lord Halifax,) to ridicule Dryden's Hind and Panther. This procured its author's speedy preferment at court. As a diplomatist, Prior's abilities were of the first order; and he was employed in the most difficult negotiations. One day, whilst surveying the royal apartments at Versailles, being shown the Victories of Louis, painted by Le Brun, and being asked, whether the king of England's palace had any decorations of that kind: "The monuments of my master's actions," he replied, "are to be seen every where but in his own house." — Congreve is to be considered as a dramatic writer; in which line, he was highly distinguished. His best productions are, his Old Bachelor, and Mourning Bride. But the general tenor of his plays, in common with nearly all that were written in his day, is reprehensible. However, by long continued critical attacks, in which Collier was the principal assailant, the immorality of the drama was in a great measure overthrown.—Blackmore, as well as Garth, was an eminent physician, and was employed in that profession by the king. His Creation, a philosophical poem, has been much admired, for the beauty of its versification and the strength of its reasoning.

Dr. Edward Bernard, a learned critic, linguist, and astronomer, composed many valuable nautical tables, and was industrious in collecting and comparing ancient manuscripts in different parts of Europe.—Few literary men have experienced more opposition than Dr. Bentley, an eminent critic and divine of this period; who, in a subsequent reign, filled

the situation of royal professor of divinity, in the university of Cambridge. Besides having the great Boyle as an antagonist, he was assailed by the cutting satire of Swift, in the Tale of a Tub and Battle of the Books, and in the far famed Dunciad of Pope.

It has been frequently observed, that king William's ideas were all military. Two establishments, at Greenwich and Chelsea, the one commenced, and the other completed in this reign, to which we may reasonably suppose he gave particular attention, are adduced in corroboration. Greenwich Hospital, upon the Thames, about six miles from London, originally a favourite residence of the English princes, especially of Henry the seventh, and Charles the second, was now enlarged; and, with a few acres of ground, appropriated for the residence of aged and disabled seamen, the widows and children of those who lost their lives in the service of their country, and for the encouragement of navigation. The present establishment consists of two-thousand-four-hundred pensioners, and three-thousand out-pensioners, with a sufficient number of nurses, and other attendants. In point of elegance of architecture, and liberal endowment, there is scarcely so great an institution in the world. Behind the hospital, is a delightful park, well stocked with deer, in which is an observatory, furnished with all kinds of astronomical instruments.—Chelsea Hospital sometimes called Chelsea College, is also situated on the Thames, about a mile above the western extremity of London. This noble building, as well as the addition to Greenwich Hospital, was designed by the great architect and mathematician, sir Christopher Wren; and is exclusively for invalids of the land-service. The ordinary pensioners are about five-hundred: but the extraordinary, or out-pensioners, exceed twelve-thousand; and are allowed each twelve pounds a year; which expense is supported chiefly by a poundage deducted from the pay of the army, and one day's pay in each year from every officer and private.

Bayonets, a French invention, were at this time first used by the English army.

CHAPTER XVI.

ANNE.

Legislative Union with Scotland.

1702—1714.

IN conformity with the act of settlement, Anne, second daughter of the unfortunate James, ascended the throne having the general approbation of the kingdom. She was now in her thirty-eighth year; being married, as we before related, to George, prince of Denmark. She was rather pleasing than beautiful; and though, like the rest of her family, she was fitted rather for the domestic employment of a parent, than the public duty of a sovereign, few monarchs have swayed the English sceptre with more ability.

From the parliament, Anne soon received the most friendly and flattering addresses. Then, with the usual solemnity, she went to the house of peers; and, in a speech to the lords and commons, expressed her satisfaction at their unanimous concurrence with her opinion, that too much could not be done to encourage the allies in humbling the power of France: she desired them to consider on the best means of procuring a legislative union with Scotland; and, after some other remarks, concluded, by saying, "As I know my own heart to be entirely English, I can very sincerely assure you, that there is not any thing you can expect, or request from me, which I shall not be ready to do, for the happiness and prosperity of England; and you shall always find me a strict observer of my word."

Sharp, archbishop of York, was her director in ecclesiastical affairs: the earl of Rochester was continued as lord lieutenant of Ireland: the privy seal was intrusted to the marquis of Normanby: the earl of Nottingham and sir Charles Hedges were made secretaries of state. The prince of Denmark was appointed generalissimo of all the forces, both by sea and land; assisted, as admiral, by a council amongst whom was sir George Rooke. Marlborough (to whom we shall, henceforth, give the title of duke) was despatched to Holland, that he might animate the states to a vigorous effort against France; in which embassy, he completely succeeded. With them, in conjunction with the

Imperial minister, he arranged, that war should be declared against Louis, on the same day, at the Hague, Vienna, and London; and concerted the operations of the campaign.

Marlborough, who makes so conspicuous a figure in history, was first inured to the dangers of the field under the famous French marshal, Turenne; in whose army, he had been a volunteer. At first, more remarkable for the beauty of his person, than the greatness of his talents, he was known in the camp by the name of the handsome Englishman; but his master, who saw much deeper than the surface, perceived the superiority of his genius, and pictured in his imagination the laurels which victory was preparing for him. When appointed to command, Marlborough deviated from the established practice of the army, by advancing the subaltern officers; whose claims had hitherto been neglected. With him, title, or seniority, was no passport to promotion: he gave the preference to bravery and talent; by which means, merit was rewarded, and victory secured.

1704. The name of Blenheim is intimately associated with that of Marlborough. There, the greatest battle of that age was fought; and there he established his renown. The allied army, at the head of which were the duke, and prince Eugene, who commanded the Imperialists, amounted to fifty-thousand. The French army, commanded by marshal Tallard, outnumbered their antagonists, by at least eight-thousand. Tallard chose his station on a hill; his right being protected by the Danube, and the village of Blenheim; his left, by the village of Lutzengen; his front, by a rivulet, the banks of which were steep, and its bottom marshy. Marlborough, at the head of his English troops, having crossed the rivulet, attacked, with impetuosity, the cavalry of Tallard. Prince Eugene, on the left, had not yet come in contact; and nearly an hour elapsed before he could bring up his troops to the charge The French cavalry being totally defeated, Tallard, at this distressing moment, flew to rally some squadrons; but, having mistaken a detachment of the assailants for his own, he was made prisoner. In the mean time, Eugene had joined the battle, and assisted to increase the enemy's confusion. The rout then became general. So great was the consternation, that numbers of the French plunged into the Danube; and thus, in avoiding one danger, embraced another. Twelve-thousand of the enemy perished by the sword and the waters; and thirteen-thousand were made prisoners

The next day, when the duke visited his prisoner Tallard, the marshal, intending it as a compliment, assured him, that he had conquered the best troops in the world—"I hope, sir," replied the duke, "you will except those by whom they have been conquered."

Marlborough was received in England as the champion of his country, and the retriever of its ancient glory. The parliament conferred on him the manor of Woodstock; where there was subsequently built for him a magnificent palace, called Blenheim House.

At sea, also, the English were in general successful. But, on that element, so rich a harvest of military greatness was not gathered, as on land. They were not opposed, there, by the same degree of talent; nor were they equally free from the mortification of defeat. A lasting monument of their success remains, in the acquisition of Gibraltar. Being at war with Spain, chiefly owing to an interference in the choice of her sovereign; an interference always impolitic, and always unjust; an English squadron, returning from a fruitless expedition, under the command of sir Cloudesly Shovel and sir George Rooke, made an easy conquest of that celebrated fortress. Gibraltar was the Calpe of the ancients, and formed, in their puerile geography, one of the Columnæ Herculis, or pillars of Hercules. On the opposite coast, in Africa, is Ceuta, formerly called Abyla; distant only eighteen miles. These, by the Heathens, were supposed to be the boundaries of the labours of Hercules; and, with equal fertility of imagination, were thought to have been joined, until that hero opened a passage from the Mediterranean into the Atlantic. If *any* station abroad is valuable to England, it is Gibraltar. We are, however, entirely opposed to such military outposts. In war, they are certainly useful, by giving protection to trade: but they are a means of producing war. Had England fewer of these bulwarks, she would be the less liable to conceive offence, and the less ready to commit violence.

The administration was, at this time, composed of the two parties—whigs and tories. Of all who influenced the public councils, the most powerful was Marlborough, who was of the whig party. But he was removed from all his employments, by the intrigues of a female. The dutchess of Marlborough, who, in the most imperious way, had long ruled the opinions of the queen, was displaced, by the cunning servility of a fawning rival—a Mrs. Masham. This woman was related to the dutchess; had been raised, by her

from indigence and obscurity, and brought to court to contribute to the queen's amusement. But this hypocritical dependant had a partner in her schemes. Robert Harley, then secretary of state, having determined to ruin the credit of the duke, and employed her as an instrument, she was successful. In his career of ambition, Harley chose for his coadjutor the celebrated Henry St. John: the one was created earl of Oxford; the other, lord Bolingbroke; who is much celebrated for his wit and eloquence; but, his strong passions led him into many acts of indiscretion and folly.

The duke of Marlborough was remarkable for his avarice; a blemish that is recorded in the following anecdote The earl of Peterborough, a general who had highly distinguished himself at the head of some British troops in Spain, one day driving through London, was much impeded by an immense crowd, who had mistaken him for the duke. The earl repeatedly assured them, that they were in error; that he was not Marlborough: but, they still persisted that he was; and were proceeding to take his horses from his carriage, for the purpose of drawing it themselves, when the earl, throwing a handful of money amongst them, exclaimed, "There, now, I hope I have convinced you that I am not the duke."

1713. After more than ten years of severe hostility, England and France seemed willing to change the desolating scene. Louis, that arch-disturber of the continent, was at length alarmed; and begged with a suppliant tone for peace. A treaty commenced at Utrecht, and on th fifth of May, peace was proclaimed in London; causing great joy to the majority of the people. The Dutch and the Imperialists, after complaining of the desertion of their ally, found their interest in acceding; the one, by the barrier treaty; the other, by the treaty of Radstadt.

In the mean time, (May 1, 1707) the long projected Union with Scotland was completed. The principal terms of which were, that the two kingdoms should be represented in one parliament: that all subjects of Great Britain should enjoy equal privileges and advantages: that the law concerning public rights and civil government should be the same throughout the united kingdoms; but, that those laws which concerned private rights, should remain unaltered · except the alteration were advantageous to the people of Scotland: that Scotland should be represented by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners; and should have the liber-

ty, not before enjoyed, of trading with the British West India plantations.

The ministerial changes produced a serious alarm amongst the whigs; who apprehended a design in favour of the Stuarts. Mr. Steele, (afterwards sir Richard Steele,) was active in exciting the national fears. In a pamphlet, called the Crisis, he vehemently declaimed against the ministry, and spoke of the immediate danger of their bringing over the exiled prince. For this, he was expelled the house of commons. Steele was one of the celebrated wits of that time; and a large contributor to the Tatler, Spectator, and Guardian, of which periodical writings, he was the founder.

The queen's health was for some time past declining; and her anxiety, caused by the turbulence of faction, hastened her decay. She expired in the fiftieth year of her age, and thirteenth of her reign; having, to the last moment in which she possessed her faculties, assiduously laboured for the future welfare of her country. The prince of Denmark had died about six years before, and none of their children survived them.

This period was so prolific in writers of genius and elegance, that it has been styled the Augustan Age of England. Our language had then, and not till then, acquired a degree of polish, which invited the whole poetical genius of the nation, to celebrate the passing events of a busy age. The poetry, of this time, will, most probably, never be excelled. It seems to have attained all the strength, and all the beauty, of the ancient. The prose, however, even up to our own day, has been gradually improving. If, as a specimen of the latter, we take the papers of the Spectator; a work which employed the best talents of the kingdom; we discover humour, and wit, and learning, struggling with the long continued dominion of grammatical imperfection. Few numbers of that celebrated compilation, are equal, in point of style, to the daily effusions of a common newspaper. The English language had not been long used in exalted subjects. In the preceding reigns, divinity had been almost exclusively taught, and polemical disputation, conducted, in the Latin tongue: philosophy was disseminated in the same; and thus, the native language was allowed to remain unpolished, until the impetuous feelings of lord Bolingbroke raised it from its degradation, lopped off its ungraceful and ambiguous incumbrances, and gave it the majestic features, the perspicuous animation, of his own mind

The brightest of the splendid constellation, that appeared then, was Pope; the most mellifluous poet that England has produced. His greatest work is the translation of Homer. In this, he was assisted by Fenton and Broome. To Fenton, were assigned, the 1st, 4th, 19th, and 20th: to Broome, the 2d, 6th, 8th, 11th, 12th, 16th, 18th, and 23d Books of the Odyssey; and so well have his associates performed their part, that no reader can distinguish their books from those of Pope. For this translation, he received, by contract, ten-thousand pounds. His Essay on Criticism, Rape of the Lock, and Dunciad, are instructive and amusing.—Of an interview with a noble lord, Pope gives the following account. "The famous lord Halifax was rather a pretender to taste, than really possessed of it. When I had finished the first two or three books of my Iliad, that lord desired to have the pleasure of hearing them read at his house. Addison, Congreve, and Garth, were at the reading. In four or five places, lord Halifax very civilly stopped me; saying, I beg your pardon, Mr. Pope—but there is something in that passage which does not quite please me. Be so good as to mark the place, and consider it at your leisure—I am sure you can give it a little turn. I went from his lordship's with Dr. Garth, and mentioned to the doctor, that lord Halifax had laid me under a great deal of difficulty, by such loose and general observations Garth laughed heartily at my embarrassment; said, that I need not puzzle myself much about looking those places over, but, to leave them just as they were; to call on lord Halifax in two or three months, and read them to him, as if altered. I did so; and his lordship was extremely pleased with them; and cried out; '*Ay, now they are perfectly right—nothing can be better.*'"

Though Swift, the celebrated Dean of St. Patrick's, stands high as a satirical poet, yet his merit as a political writer, and a patriot, is still more exalted. His numerous poems are witty and correct. His prose is unaffected and perspicuous. As a patriot, he delivered Ireland, his native ountry, from plunder and oppression; showing, that wit, when combined with truth, is irresistible. His Drapier's Letters, written against the nefarious coinage of Wood, will long be admired for their argument, and respected for their integrity. There is, however, one objection to his writings. His satire is continually interwoven with indelicacy; a means which he used, to make impropriety the more disgusting. His "Gulliver's Travels" abounds with that mode

of portraying the depravity of man. Swift did every thing in a manner peculiar to himself. A story told by Pope will afford a specimen of his humour:—"Dr. Swift has an odd, blunt way, which is mistaken, by strangers, for ill-nature. 'Tis so odd, that there's no describing it but by facts. I'll tell you one that first comes into my head. One evening, Gay and I went to see him: you know how intimately we were all acquainted. On our coming in, 'Heyday, gentlemen,' says the doctor, 'what's the meaning of this visit? How came you to leave the great lords that you are so fond of, to come hither to see a poor dean?'—'Because we would rather see you than any of them.'—'Ay, any one that did not know you so well as I do, might believe you. But, since you are come, I must get some supper for you, I suppose.'—'No, doctor, we have supped already.'—'Supped already? that's impossible! why, 'tis not eight o'clock yet. —That's very strange; but, if you had not supped, I must have got something for you.—Let me see; what should I have had? A couple of lobsters; ay, that would have done very well—two shillings—tarts, a shilling: but you will drink a glass of wine with me, though you supped so much before your usual time only to spare my pocket?'—'No; we would rather talk with you, than drink with you.'—'But, if you had supped with me, as in all reason you ought to have done, you must then have drank with me.—A bottle of wine, two shillings—two and two are four, and one are five: just two and six pence a piece. There, Pope; there's half a crown for you; and there's another for you, sir; for I wont save any thing by you, I am determined.'—This was all said and done with his usual seriousness on such occasions; and, in spite of every thing we could say to the contrary, he actually obliged us to take the money."

Addison has acquired great celebrity by his tragedy of Cato; but he is better known as the principal contributor to the Spectator; a work that every one should read: the subjects are literature, morality, and familiar life. In this reign, he was under secretary, and in the succeeding, principal secretary, of state; an office, for which, notwithstanding his general talents, he was unqualified.

To those, we have to add, Parnell, Ambrose and John Philips, Hughes, Tickel, Rowe, and Gay; of whom, the last two were the most eminent. Gay was the founder of the English Opera. Of this poet, we shall, by way of amusement, relate the following incident.—Having been invited to read a tragedy, called the Captives, before the

princess of Wales, when the hour came, he saw the princess and her ladies all in expectation; but, advancing with reverence, too great to admit of any other attention, he stumbled over a stool; and, falling forward, threw down a weighty Japan screen. The princess started; the ladies screamed; and poor Gay, after all the disturbance, had still to read his play.—The Drama is indebted also to Farquhar and Colley Cibber, particularly the former; who, by such comedies as the Rivals, Inconstant, and Beaux Stratagem, has enrolled his name amongst the most favoured votaries of Thalia. Rymer is known by the voluminous compilation of state-papers in his Fœdera; sir Hanse Sloane, by his works on botany and medicine; and sir James Thornhill, by the classical beauty of his paintings.

We recollect, with much pleasure, the names of Berkeley, the celebrated bishop of Cloyne, and the highly admired Arbuthnot. The former studied at Dublin College, of which great establishment he was a fellow. His first public essays were published in the Spectator and Guardian; which he adorned with many papers in favour of religion and virtue. Amongst his other productions, are, The Principles of Human Knowledge, A New Theory of Vision, and Alciphron, or the Minute Philosopher. Berkeley can not be exhibited in a more favourable light, than by our relating, that when offered a benefice more productive than the see of Cloyne, he declined it; saying, "My neighbours and myself love one another, and I cannot think of forming new connexions in my old days, and tearing myself from those friends whose kindness to me is my greatest happiness."—Arbuthnot, a Scotch physician, joined with Pope and Swift in publishing several volumes of Miscellanies; in which, are the well-known Memoirs of Martinus Scriblerus—an admirable satire on the abuses of human learning; and afterwards composed tables of ancient coins, weights, and measures, besides other works of great utility.

An important act was now passed, to encourage learning. Copy-rights were, by this, secured, for a certain period, to the respective authors; and placed beyond the vague issue of common-law.

A statute of Henry the eighth had limited the interest of money to ten per cent.; an act of James the first, to eight: in the reign of Charles the second it was reduced to six; and lastly, in the reign of Anne, to five per cent.; which is now the highest rate of interest that can legally be taken.

CHAPTER XVII.

GEORGE THE FIRST.

1714—1727.

WHEN reading the historic pages of the Henrys, th Edwards, or the Williams—even when we reach the less remote period of Anne, we are accompanied by a solemn impression of Antiquity. Then, with a gently gliding, and nearly imperceptible motion, the old times seemingly retreat; whilst the mind diverges from the receding scene, until the full, animating, and lively, prospect of our own days, opens with increasing splendour.

The Stuarts had now completed their period of royalty. A new branch of the regal family ascended the throne, in the order of succession provided by act of parliament.

George was at this time in the fifty-fifth year of his age He was son of Ernest Augustus Guelf, first elector of Brunswick, and the princess Sophia, grand-daughter of James the first; and inherited Hanover; which, near the end of the preceding century, had been made the ninth Electorate of the Germanic Empire.

The new king was violently prejudiced against one party, and attached to the other. His confidence and affection were wholly given to the whigs. The duke of Ormond, who commanded the army, was now dismissed, and Marlborough restored. The great seal was given to lord Cowper; the privy seal to the earl of Wharton; and the government of Ireland, to lord Sunderland. The duke of Devonshire was made steward of the household: lord Townshend and Mr. Stanhope were appointed secretaries of state. The duke of Somerset was constituted master of the horse; the duke of Argyle commander of the forces in Scotland; Mr. Pultney secretary of war, and sir Robert Walpole, who had undertaken to *manage* the house of ommons, paymaster of the army.

The king's partiality soon produced dissatisfaction. In different places, seditious libels were dispersed; and alarming tumults raised. Birmingham, Bristol, Chippenham, Norwich, and Reading, were disturbed with licentious riot.

1715. The conduct of the late ministry became the chief subject of parliamentary inquiry; and a committee were appointed to examine all papers relative to

the late negotiation for peace. When their report was made, an impeachment was voted against lord Bolingbroke, the earl of Oxford, and the duke of Ormond. Mr. Harley, brother of the earl, and Mr. Foley, his brother-in-law, defended the ministerial conduct of their relative. They insisted, that he had done nothing without his sovereign's command: that the peace was advantageous and honourable; sanctioned by the voice of one parliament, and approved by another; and they asked, what security could be afforded to a minister, against the vengeance of his enemies, if the sanction of a parliament, the great legislature of the nation, were insufficient. The measures of the duke of Ormond were ably advocated by Archibald Hamilton, Mr Hutcheson, general Lumley, and sir Joseph Jekyll. They enumerated the eminent services performed to the crown and the nation, by the duke and his illustrious ancestors: observed, that, in the whole of his late conduct, he had obeyed the queen's directions; and that the allegations, even if substantiated, did not amount to high treason. Bolingbroke, having observed the gathering storm, had early secured shelter from its most dangerous effects, by retiring to the continent. Ormond, fearing that it would burst upon him with overwhelming fury, remained not to try so unequal a contest. The names of those two noblemen were erased from the list of peers, and their estates were declared forfeited to the crown. Oxford, after two years' imprisonment in the Tower, was brought to trial; when, owing to a violent animosity between the two houses of parliament, he was liberated without inquiry.

The chevalier St. George, (by which title, the son of the late king James was known) conceiving this a favourable time for making an attempt upon the British throne, used every means to increase the national ferment, and excite his partisans to arms. He was assisted by Ormond and Bolingbroke; but, his intrigues being discovered by the earl of Stair, the English ambassador at Paris, the king took effectual measures to oppose them. Another misfortune arose, to thwart his attempts upon the peace of England. This was the death of Louis the fourteenth; who, contrary to the treaty of Utrecht, had espoused his cause. The regency having devolved upon the duke of Orleans, he gave the chevalier very trifling assistance; and amused his agents with equivocal expressions, tending rather to frustrate than to forward his design.

But, the adherents of the chevalier had already gone so

far, that to retreat with safety was impossible. Resolved therefore, to try their fortune in the field, many persons of the first distinction called out their warlike clans. The earl of Mar, as his lieutenant-general, the marquises of Huntley and Tullibardine, the earls Marischal and Southesk, were the first in arms. Meanwhile, two vessels had arrived from Havre, with military stores, and a great number of officers; who gave information that the chevalier himself would very soon arrive. Some of his partisans attempted to surprise the castle of Edinburgh; but the vigilance of colonel Stuart, lieutenant-governor of that fortress, defeated their design. The duke of Argyle set out for Scotland, as commander in chief of the royal forces in that country; and many of the Scottish peers returned thither to signalize their attachment to the existing sovereign.

In England, the Pretender had a number of respectable supporters. Lords Lansdown and Duplin, sir William Wyndham, and sir John Packington, Messrs. Harvey, and Forster, Anstes, and Kynaston, members of parliament, were ordered to be committed to prison, on suspicion of disloyalty. Forster, joined by some gentlemen from the borders of Scotland, proclaimed the pretender in Warkworth, Morpeth, and Alnwick, in Northumberland; and, being further reinforced by lords Kenmuir, Carnwath, and Wintoun, with two-hundred Scottish horse, the whole rested at Kelso in Roxburghshire.

The earl of Mar was now at the head of ten-thousand well-armed troops. He fixed his head quarters at Perth; and made himself master of all Fifeshire, and the entire sea-coast on that side of the Frith of Edinburgh. He then selected two-thousand-five-hundred men, commanded by brigadier Mackintosh; who, after displaying the greatest courage and abilities in a series of difficult enterprises joined the forces at Kelso.

When arrived at Jedburgh, one-half of the Highlanders declared that they would not quit their own country, and returned home. At Brampton, Forster opened his commission of general, and then continued his march, through Kendal and Lancaster, to Preston; of which town, (the royal army having retired,) the rebels took possession. Here, they were attacked by general Willis, with six regiments of horse and one battalion of foot. But the assailants were driven off with considerable loss. Next day, general Carpenter arrived, with three regiments of dragoons; by which reinforcement, the rebels being intimidated, the whole army

surrendered at discretion. The common men were imprisoned at Chester and Liverpool; the nobility and principal officers were sent to London, and committed to the Tower and Newgate.

The same day on which the rebels surrendered at Preston, the duke of Argyle and the earl of Mar were engaged at Dumblain, in Scotland. There, was fought, the best contested battle that occurred during the whole rebellion. The latter nobleman, having been joined by the northern clans under the earl of Seaforth, and by those of the west under general Gordon, had resolved to pass the Forth, that he might join his southern friends, and march with them into England. Argyle, aware of his intention, determined to arrest his progress; and, on the 12th of November, encamped, with his left on the village of Dumblain, and his right towards Sheriffmoor. The next morning, Glengary and Clanronald, two Scottish chieftains, who commanded under the earl of Mar, charged the left of the royal army, sword-in-hand, with so great impetuosity, that, in seven minutes, both horse and foot were driven, with great slaughter, from the field. At the same time, the duke of Argyle attacked the left of the enemy, at the head of Stair's and Evans' dragoons, and drove them as far as the Water of Allan. After much hard fighting, both parties desisted, and fronted each other until the evening; when, the duke drew off towards Dumblain, the rebels towards Ardoch. This was what is called a drawn battle: on each side were killed about five-hundred men.

In another quarter, the hopes of the insurgents were completely ruined. Lord Lovat, having deserted their cause, secured the important post of Inverness for the government; after which, many of the pretender's principal adherents were constrained to retire, for the protection of their estates; and then, the clans, according to custom, returned home.

Notwithstanding this desperate situation of his affairs; the account of which was confirmed on the return of the duke of Ormond, who had come over to reconnoitre; the chevalier determined to join his friends in Scotland. Accompanied by the marquis of Tinmouth and a few others, he landed at Peterhead. Thence, having passed through Aberdeen, he arrived at Feterosse; where, he was met by the earl of Mar, and about thirty noblemen and gentlemen, of considerable rank. Here, he was solemnly proclaimed king. Having visited Dundee and Scone, he stopped at

Perth; where he formed a regular council, issued proclamations, and, for a while, enjoyed all the satisfaction of conscious royalty. But these golden days were of short continuance. The duke of Argyle was now approaching. Proclamations on the one hand, congratulatory addresses on the other, and pathetic speeches in reply, were unavailing. Money, arms, ammunition, provisions,—even men, were wanting. Thus circumstanced, the chevalier abandoned the enterprise; and, accompanied by the earls of Mar and Melford, with several other persons of distinction, embarked at Montrose, and, in a few days, arrived at Gravelines.

Ireland, though always branded as seditious, remained, throughout the whole rebellion, completely tranquil. The only event which then occurred in that kingdom, worthy of relation, in this small work, was the precautionary order for apprehending lords Antrim, Westmeath, Netterville, Cahir, and Dillon.

Stuart's departure had given the signal for hostilities in the field to cease. In a few days afterwards, impeachments and attainders were voted against his principal friends. Sentence of death was passed on lords Derwentwater, Kenmuir, Carnwath, Nairn, Widdington, and Nithsdale. The first two were immediately beheaded: the next three were respited until the following month; and, ultimately, pardoned. Lord Nithsdale escaped in a female dress, which had been brought to him by his mother. Forster, Mackintosh, and several others, broke out of Newgate. Many were hanged in London, Preston, and Manchester; and about one-thousand were obliged to settle in America.

It should be carefully remembered, that, in this rebellion, persons of various religions were engaged—members of the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, and the Church of Rome.

As the present parliament was now drawing towards a conclusion, and it was thought dangerous to hazard a general election, whilst the minds of the people were in so great a ferment, a bill was passed for discontinuing triennial parliaments, (which term had subsisted ever since the sixth year of William and Mary,) and establishing septennial.

The civil war had scarcely terminated, when a formidable enemy was created on the continent. This was the celebrated Charles the twelfth, of Sweden; a man equally remarkable for the splendour, and the madness, of his exploits. The king, as elector of Hanover, having purchased, from the opponents of that prince, the dutchies of Bremen

and Verden, which had constituted a part of the Swedish dominions, Charles determined to have revenge; and entered into a treaty with the chevalier St. George, to assist him in another attempt upon the English throne. In consequence, the king went over to the continent; where he remained a short time, that he might secure his Hanoverian dominions. In the following year, the Swedish monarch was killed in the trenches before Frederickshall, in Norway; removing, by his death, the apprehensions of invasion.

1718. But England seems to live only amidst the noise of arms. She soon hastily embraced, what, a moment before, she had so cautiously avoided. The king, having been appointed by Philip of Spain an arbitrator in a dispute with the emperor of Germany, made a decision unpleasing to the former; who, consequently, refused compliance. This produced a war between England and Spain. Admiral Byng was despatched to the Mediterranean, with twenty-two ships of the line. Having performed the most signal service, by relieving the Neapolitans and Sicilians, then threatened by the Spaniards, the British admiral, after a long chase, engaged the enemy's fleet, superior in number, off Cape Passaro; and, in a well contested action, captured them all, except six or eight ships. For this achievement, Byng was honoured with a letter of approbation from the king, written with his own hand; and, for his further services, ennobled, by the title of viscount Torrington.

The duke of Ormond having gone to Madrid, measures were there concerted for exciting another insurrection in Great Britain. These plans, however, being made known to the English government, by the regent of France, every precaution was taken to repel the danger. The duke sailed from Cadiz with six-thousand troops, and arms for twelve thousand more; but, when off Cape Finisterre, his fleet was disabled and dispersed by a storm. Only two frigates arrived in Scotland; with the earls Marischal and Seaforth, the marquis of Tullibardine, some field officers, three-hundred Spaniards, and arms for two-thousand men. Being joined by a small body of Highlanders, they took possession of Donan Castle. General Wightman marched against them; and, after driving them before him for some time, made prisoners of all the Spaniards; the Highlanders having previously dispersed Marischal, Seaforth, and Tullibardine, retired to one of the Western Isles; and thus ended the expedition.

1722. Information was now received from the duke of Orleans, of a fresh conspiracy. A camp was immediately formed in Hyde Park: all military officers were ordered to join their regiments; and the court was removed to Kensington. Many persons of distinction were committed to the Tower, on charges of high treason; amongst whom, was Atterbury, bishop of Rochester, who was, by an act of parliament, deprived of all his offices and dignities, banished from the realm, and subjected to the penalty of death, in case he should return. The other prisoners were liberated on bail. A pardon was afterwards granted to lord Bolingbroke; who, as we have already mentioned, had been impeached, in the beginning of this reign.

1724. This year was distinguished by a remarkable incident—the trial of the earl of Macclesfield, lord chancellor of England. It was reported to the house of commons, that the chancellor had embezzled the estates of many widows, orphans, and lunatics: that he had raised to an exorbitant sum, the price of situations of masters in chancery; trusting in their hands large sums of money belonging to suitors, that those officers might be enabled to comply with his demands; and that he had made, in several cases, irregular orders. He was accordingly impeached at the bar of the upper house. The trial lasted twenty days, and ended in his conviction; by which he was fined thirty-thousand pounds.—How honourable to the laws—how disgraceful to the judge!

1727. The king, having appointed a regency, left England to visit his Hanoverian dominions. But, on his journey, he was seized with a paralytic disorder, and conveyed, in a state of insensibility, to Osnaburgh; where he expired, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign. In his person and address, he was plain and unaffected: in his general deportment, grave and composed; though, when removed from the cares of business, easy, facetious, and familiar.

This reign is remarkable for stock-jobbing projects; and particularly for the South-Sea speculation; which involved its numerous victims in ruin, and its managers in well merited punishment and infamy.

In 1722, died the great duke of Marlborough; the only general, either of ancient or modern times, except the duke of Wellington, of whom it can be said, that he never fought a battle that he did not gain, nor ever besieged a town that he did not take.

In the year 1723, the decorations of St. Paul's cathedral

in London were completed. This is the most magnificent protestant church in the world; and one of the finest structures that any age has produced. It is said to have been originally founded by Ethelbert, a Saxon prince, on the site of a temple which the Romans had dedicated to Diana. The old building was destroyed in the great fire of 1666. The first stone of the present structure was laid by sir Christopher Wren, in 1675. It is built of fine Portland stone, after the model of St. Peter's at Rome. Its length from east to west is five-hundred feet; its breadth, three-hundred-and-eleven, including the porticos; its height, from the ground to the top of the cross, three-hundred-and-forty-four feet; occupying an area of six acres. The expense of building amounted to more than seven-hundred-thousand pounds.

In 1716, John Lombe, erected a silk mill at Derby; the first established in England. The building in which his machinery, copied from the Italian models, was placed, is still used by the original manufacture. About the same time, the astronomical instrument, called the Orrery, was invented, by George Graham, of London; and lady Mary Wortley Montague introduced, from Constantinople, the practice of inoculation for the small-pox.—The Royal Bank at Edinburgh received its charter in the last year of this reign; being the second public money establishment in the country of which that city is the capital. The first, called the Bank of Scotland, was instituted in the reign of William and Mary.

The poets who began, at this time, to attract public attention, were, Watts, Thomson, and Savage. Doctor Watts was a dissenting minister, and amongst the first who gave the presbyterians a taste for the graces of language, in the service of their church: he showed them, that zeal and purity might be expressed and enforced in a polished composition. His version of the psalms of David, is very generally adopted. As a logician, he was particularly eminent. His system of logic has been received into the universities. Every one must look back with veneration on this truly useful and charitable man. He laid aside the scholar, the philosopher, and the wit, to write little poems of devotion and systems of instruction for children; adapted to their wants and capacities, from the earliest dawn of reason to the first approaches of maturity; and, during a great part of his life, gave to the poor a third part of his annual revenue, though it did not exceed one-hundred pounds. Thomson may be rated amongst the highest

class of poetical writers. His Seasons, the most admired of all his performances, display some of the sweetest pas sages that any poet has produced. An account of the life and writings of Savage, will be found in Johnson's Lives of the Poets. He was equally remarkable for his genius and misfortunes; which his biographer has recorded with much effect and elegance. The life of Savage is almost the only one that Johnson has given with impartiality; and is written with more perspicuity, and less affectation, than any other in his collection.

Nathaniel Hooke had an extensive knowledge of foreign languages, and wrote an admired history of Rome. De Foe was equally ingenious either in politics, or in commercial economy; and was a strenuous advocate of the people's rights: but, he is best known as the author of Robin son Crusoe; the most fascinating romance that has ever appeared; and not more conducive to entertainment, than to the interest of morality. He has been accused of dealing unfairly with Alexander Selkirk, upon whose adventures the work is founded: but the charge seems to have been framed by his political enemies; as Selkirk printed his own narrative, many years before the appearance of the imaginary Crusoe.

GEORGE THE SECOND.

1727—1760

George the second, only son of the late king, ascended the throne in the forty-fourth year of his age. At this period, lord Townshend was minister of foreign affairs, and the interior government was conducted chiefly by sir Robert Walpole; a man who had raised himself to this high situation by his eloquence, and his talent for political in trigue. Lord Torrington was placed at the head of the admiralty. Philip Dormer Stanhope, earl of Chesterfield, was nominated ambassador to the Hague.

The national debt of Great Britain was more than fifty-two millions; an alarming sum, when compared with her cotemporary finances. The ministers, as at present, boasted of their sinking fund, as a powerful means of reducing the debt: but, as yet, this far-famed invention has been ineffective. Theory is overthrown by fact. Arithmetical calculation seems as much opposed to this method of reduction, as mathematical demonstration is to the attempts

at producing perpetual motion by the unaided agency of mechanical power.

The system of corrupting the members of parliament, was carried to a most shameful height. The immoral custom of voting large sums, under the name of secret service money, had placed an engine of corruption in the hands of the administration; and patriotism was, by that means, nearly extinguished. The most eminent opposers of the ministry, at this period, were, sir William Wyndham, Mr. Shippen, and Mr. William Pulteney. But their industry and eloquence were unsuccessful. The treasury was still more eloquent. Subsidies were liberally given to continental powers; and treaties concluded, entirely uninteresting to Great Britain.

1729. Lord Carteret, who had governed Ireland with much propriety, returned to England; being succeeded in his office by the duke of Dorset. The parliament of that country had lately paid much attention to the interest of agriculture, manufactures, and trade.

In the following year, seven Indian chiefs, of the Cherokee nation, were brought to England, by sir Alexander Cumin. We may naturally imagine the feelings of these rude people, from the novelty of all around them. Being introduced to the king, they laid their regalia at his feet; and, by a regular deed, acknowledged themselves subject to his dominion, in the name of all their compatriots, by whom they had been commissioned. They were amazed at the splendour of the court. They compared the king and queen to the sun and moon; the princes, to the stars of heaven, and themselves to nothing. After finishing a treaty of friendship and commerce, these interesting visiters were loaded with presents, and conveyed to their own country.

We pass over the detail of many violent debates in parliament, on finances, provision for the royal family, and illegal practices of the court to insure a majority. The opposition had now acquired considerable strength. They combated, with assiduity and manly eloquence, every attempt upon the liberties of the people. A motion made by Mr. Bromley, for repealing the septennial act, and for the more frequent calling of parliaments, elicited the talents of both parties beyond any other question in this reign

On that subject, sir William Wyndham delivered a speech, plainly referring to sir Robert Walpole and the reigning sovereign, which showed him to be the unrivalled

orator, and the unshaken patriot.—"Let us suppose," said he, in the conclusion, "a man destitute of all sense of virtue and honour; of no great family; of mean fortune; raised to be chief minister of state by the concurrence of many whimsical events; afraid, or unwilling, to trust any but creatures of his own making; lost to every feeling of shame or reputation; ignorant of his country's true interest; pursuing no aim but that of aggrandizing himself and his favourites; in foreign affairs, trusting none, but those, who from the bent of their education, cannot possibly be qualified for the service of their country.—Let us suppose the true interest of the nation, by such means, neglected or misunderstood; her honour tarnished; her importance lost; her trade insulted; her merchants plundered; her sailors murdered; and all these circumstances overlooked, lest his administration should be endangered. Suppose, next, that he is possessed of immense wealth, the plunder of the nation, with a parliament composed chiefly of men whose seats are purchased, and whose votes are bought, at the expense of the public treasure. In such a parliament, suppose that all attempts made to inquire into his conduct, or to relieve the nation from the distress which has been entailed upon it, by his administration, are fruitless. Suppose him screened by a corrupted majority of his creatures; whom he retains in daily pay, or engages in his interest, by distributing amongst them those posts and places which ought never to be given to any but for the good of the public. Let us suppose him domineering, with insolence, over all the men of ancient families; over all the men of sense, figure, or fortune, in the nation; as he has no virtue of his own, ridiculing it in others, and endeavouring to destroy or corrupt it, in all. With such a minister, and such a parliament, let us suppose a case, which I hope will never happen—a prince upon the throne, uninformed, ignorant, and unacquainted with the true interest of his people—weak, capricious, transported with unbounded ambition, and possessed of insatiable avarice. I hope that such a case will never occur; but, as it possibly may, could any greater evil happen to a nation, than such a prince on the throne—advised, and solely advised, by such a minister, and that minister supported by such a parliament?—The nature of mankind cannot be altered, by human laws: the existence of such a prince, or such a minister, we cannot prevent, by act of parliament—but, the existence of such a parliament, I think we may prevent; and as it is more likely to exist

while the septennial law remains in force, than if it were repealed, I am, therefore, heartily, for its being repealed."

But, notwithstanding the nervous arguments in favour of the motion, the advocates of liberty were overthrown by a ministerial majority.

In the house of lords, the minority were not less vigilant in detecting, and resolute in opposing, every measure injurious to their country. The most remarkable object of their attention, at this time, was a petition presented by the duke of Bedford, subscribed by the dukes of Hamilton, Queensbury, and Montrose, the earls of Dundonald, Marchmont, and Stair, complaining, that improper influence had been used in the election of the sixteen peers returned to parliament, for Scotland. The partisans of the ministry would willingly have stifled the inquiry in the beginning; but it was so strongly supported by the earls of Chesterfield, Abingdon, and Strafford, the lords Bathurst and Carteret, that they could not so soon dismiss it, with any regard to decorum. The petitioners stated, that a list of the sixteen peers, called the king's list, had been made, previous to the election, by persons in high trust under the crown: that votes were procured for their favourites, by pensions, offices, and money; and that, on the day of election, his majesty's troops were drawn up, contrary to custom, in the Abbey-court of Edinburgh, without any apparent cause, but that of overawing the electors.—Authentic documents, taken from the journal of the election, were then produced; which fully supported the allegations of the petition. But all these proofs, though supported by the charms and energy of eloquence, were exhibited in vain; and a motion was carried for adjourning.

1736. In this year, Great Britain was deprived of one of her greatest ornaments—lord Chancellor Talbot; who, by his probity and professional acquirements, had given additional dignity to his exalted situation. He was succeeded in his office by lord Hardwick.

1739. Owing to a disgraceful treaty with Spain, in which the national dignity had been sacrificed, by its not expressly providing that British ships, when trading from one English colony to another, should not be searched by the Spaniards; that country paid little regard to its fulfilment; and her dereliction was succeeded by a war. They now claimed the right of searching all British vessels in the American seas, without exception. Admiral Vernon was despatched to attack the town of Porto Bello

on the isthmus of Darien; which place he easily reduced and then demolished all its fortifications. But he was not
1741. so fortunate in his subsequent operations. Being joined at Jamaica by a large reinforcement, under sir C. Ogle, his fleet now amounted to nearly sixty sail; one-half of which were of the line. With about twelve thousand land-troops, under general Wentworth, he sailed with the intention of reducing Havana, in the island of Cuba; but, changing his destination, he proceeded to the attack of Carthagena. The attempt, however, proved abortive. Owing to the want of co-operation between the sea and the land forces, in which the admiral was in fault, the troops were re-embarked; after suffering incredible hardships, both from the fire of the enemy, and sickness: and, in the end, only a tenth part of their number returned to England.

Commodore Anson had been sent with a small squadron to annoy the enemy in the South Sea. This enterprising officer returned, after an absence of three years and nine months; having made considerable prizes, and circumnavigated the globe. His voyage, the particulars of which were published, has been much celebrated; and his conduct procured him advancement to the peerage. His fleet being shattered by dreadful severity of weather, he took shelter at the island of Juan Fernandez, off the coast of Chili; a place famous for having given rise to the story of Robinson Crusoe. The following interesting observation is extracted from his voyage.—"Former writers have related, that this island abounded with vast numbers of goats; and their accounts are not to be questioned; this place having been the usual haunt of the buccaniers and privateers that formerly frequented these seas. And there are two instances, one of a Musquito Indian, the other of Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, who were left there by their respective ships, and lived alone upon the island for some years; consequently, were no strangers to its productions. Selkirk, who was the last, after a stay of four or five years, was taken off the place by the Duke and Dutchess privateers of Bristol. His manner of life, in most particulars, was very remarkable; and there is one circumstance he relates, so fully verified by our own observation, that I cannot avoid reciting it. He tells us, amongst other things that he often caught more goats than he wanted; sometimes marked their ears and let them go. This was about thirty-two years before our arrival at the island. Now, it

happened, that the first we killed there, *had his ears slit*, from which, we concluded that he had been formerly under the power of Selkirk. This was indeed an animal of most venerable aspect; dignified with an exceedingly majestic beard, and with many other symptoms of antiquity. During our stay, we met with others, marked in the same manner; all the males being distinguished by an exuberance of beard, and every other characteristic of extreme age.'

The continent of Europe was now afflicted with mos sanguinary contests; arising from a disputed claim to the imperial throne, and the conquest of Silesia by the Prussians. This is the period in which Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, appeared so conspicuous, as an indefatigable soldier and a wise politician. His Memoirs of the Seven Years War are highly interesting. In these contests, the king of England found an opportunity of engaging, as elector of Hanover; assisted by British and Hanoverian troops, in conjunction with a body of Dutch and other auxiliaries. A great battle ensued at the village of Dettingen. The allies, amounting to forty-thousand, were commanded by the earl of Stair: the French, by whom they were opposed, in number thirty-thousand, were under the duke de Grammont. The engagement was sustained, on both sides, with distinguished bravery, and ended in the defeat of the enemy, with considerable loss. George himself, and his second son, the duke of Cumberland, were in this action, and exposed themselves in the very hottest of the fight.

Meanwhile, the councils of the nation were most violently disturbed. A powerful party being formed against the administration, Walpole and his adherents seemed tottering on their seats. Mr. Sandys informed him, that, in two days, he intended to bring a charge against him, in public. Sir Robert received the intimation with great indifference, and quoted the following, as a passage of Horace:

Nil conscire sibi, nulli pallescere culpæ.

(To be conscious of no guilt, to turn pale at no charge.) Mr. Pulteney who sat on the same bench with him, said, that that was false Latin. Sir Robert wagered a guinea, that it was not; a copy of Horace being produced, and the words of the author appearing to be,

Nil conscire sibi, nulla pallescere culpa.

Mr. Pulteney took the guinea, and, holding it up, said, with a sneer, that it was the only guinea of the public money, he had received for many years.—But these dissensions were suddenly suspended. From the general dissatis-

faction in Great Britain, the French were persuaded that the people were ready for revolt; and the court of Versailles having been informed, that if the chevalier St. George, or his eldest son, Charles, would appear in that country, at the head of a French army, a revolution would immediately follow in his favour; measures were accordingly concerted by the minister, cardinal de Tencin, with the former; who then resided at Rome. The chevalier, being far advanced in years, delegated his authority to his son. Young Charles having arrived in Paris, preparations went vigorously forward for the intended invasion. In order to protect the landing of the troops, M. de Roquefeuille sailed from Brest, with twenty vessels of the line; directing his course up the English Channel: but, on the approach of admiral Norris, he quickly returned into port. Thus, England, for the present, was saved from the horrors of civil war.

Notwithstanding the battle of Dettingen, and this attempted invasion, France and England were nominally at peace. A British minister was still at Paris. War, however, was soon formally proclaimed. The French king, Louis XV, having resolved to humble the house of Austria, by making a conquest of the Netherlands, sent thither an immense army, commanded by count Saxe; and Louis himself, accompanied by the Dauphin, having arrived in the camp, they invested the town of Tournay. The duke of Cumberland, at the head of the combined troops, marched to its relief; and came in sight of the enemy near Fontenoy; where a dreadful battle ensued. The English and Hanoverians fought with determined bravery; but, being unsupported by the Dutch, they were, in the end, defeated.

During these events, the administration had undergone an important revolution. Sir Robert Walpole, having been gradually losing his influence in parliament, was at length overpowered by a decided majority. The next day, both houses were for a short time adjourned: in the interim, he was created earl of Orford, and, after being prime minister for twenty years, resigned all his employments. Many of the country party came into power. Mr. Sandys was made chancellor of the exchequer; lord Carteret, secretary of state; Mr. Pulteney was admitted into the privy council, and created earl of Bath; and the earl of Stair, appointed field marshal of all his majesty's forces. But this was a change only of men—not of measures. Several of those who had declaimed the most loudly against the court, now as loudly opposed an inquiry into the past corruptions

Amongst these, were lords Carteret, Bathurst, the new earl of Bath, and Mr. Sandys. Amongst the firm adherents of the people, were, the duke of Bedford, the earls of Stanhope, Sandwich, and Chesterfield. The latter nobleman was, afterwards, lord lieutenant of Ireland; and, principal secretary of state. During his short government, his urbanity and mildness gained the affections of the Irish people, and he contributed highly to the improvement of the Phœnix Park. He was distinguished for his wit, eloquence, and polished manners, and for his extraordinary address in negotiation: but he merits a severe reproach, for having recommended his diplomatic system of flattery and dissimulation, to aspiring youth; from their first introduction to the drawingroom, to their last stage of national advancement. Man is, by nature, or by gradual contamination, already too apt to become a time-serving sycophant, and needs not the eloquence of Chesterfield to urge him on his march to dishonourable attainments.

1745. We are now approaching the most prominent event of this reign. Though more than half a century had passed since the house of Stuart forfeited the throne, yet the hope of regaining it was not extinct. Young Charles determined to make another effort. The majority of his friends, however, sent a messenger, advising, that, as he could not then expect the necessary aid from France, his enterprise might end in the ruin of himself and his adherents. But this advice did not arrive in time to prevent his embarkation. Being furnished with some money and arms, on his private credit, he set sail, on board a small frigate, from Port St. Nazaire; accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, sir Thomas Sheridan, sir John Mac Donald, with a few other Irish and Scotch friends; and was joined off Belleisle by the Elizabeth, a French ship of sixty-six guns, as a convoy. Having fallen in with the Lion, an English ship of the line, there ensued an obstinate and sanguinary action. The Elizabeth was so disabled, that she with difficulty arrived at Brest; and the Lion was rendered almost a wreck. The return of the Elizabeth deprived Charles of a large quantity of arms, and a number of experienced officers; but, he at length arrived at Borrodale, where he was in a short time joined by a considerable number of hardy mountaineers, under their respective leaders.

On the 19th of August, the marquis of Tullibardine erected the pretender's standard at Glensinnan. Charles, himself, having assembled about twelve-hundred men, en-

camped near Fort William, situated on Loch Eil, in Invernesshire. Hostilities immediately began. In another quarter, major Donald Mac Donald, at the head of a small party of Keppoch's clan, encountered two companies of newly-raised royalists; whom he easily disarmed. Charles was afterwards joined by the duke of Perth, the earls of Kilmarnock and Cromartie, and viscount Strathallan; lords Nairn, George Murray, Elcho, Balmerino, and Ogilvie; Pitsligo, Lewis Gordon, and John Drummond. The government, which, for some time, had doubted the truth of Stuart's landing, was now effectually alarmed. A proclamation was soon issued, offering a reward of thirty-thousand pounds for his person; whilst he, in another proclamation, set the same price upon the head of the "elector of Hanover." The Highlanders marched to Perth; where the chevalier St. George was proclaimed king of Great Britain; and, on the 17th of September, Charles entered Edinburgh, and took possession of the royal palace of Holyrood House.

Three-thousand of the king's troops, commanded by sir John Cope, were now approaching. On the 20th of the month, they encamped near Preston Pans. Early next morning, the young pretender, with an inferior number of half-armed Highlanders, attacked them, with so great impetuosity, that, in a few minutes, the royalists were totally beaten, with the loss of their colours, tents, baggage, and military chest. Five-hundred of the king's troops were killed on the field of battle. Amongst these, was colonel Gardiner; who, when abandoned by his own regiment of dragoons, disdaining to save his life at the expense of honour, joined the infantry, and combated on foot, until, covered with wounds, he fell, in view of his own door, bravely fighting to the last.

After the engagement, the victor returned to Edinburgh Whilst he resided there, some of the presbyterian clergy continued to preach in the churches of that city, and, without meeting any interruption, publicly prayed for king George. A minister, named Mac Vicar, having been solicited by some Highlanders to pray for *their* prince, promised to comply, and performed his promise in these words: "And, as for the young prince, who has come hither in search of an *earthly crown*—grant, O Lord, that he may speedily receive a *crown of glory*."

Young Stuart had gained possession of nearly all Scotland: the number of his followers daily increased, and he received considerable supplies of money, artillery, and ammu-

nition, from France. At length, having collected about five-thousand men, he resolved to make an irruption into England. He entered by the west border: invested Carlisle which in a few days surrendered; and, leaving a small garrison in the castle, advanced to Penrith; marching, on foot in the Highland dress.* Thence, he proceeded, through Lancaster and Preston, to Manchester; where, on the 29th of November, he established his head quarters. Here, he was joined by a small regiment under the command of colonel Townley; and, apparently, was received with affectionate regard. Leaving Manchester, he forded the Mersey at Stockport, at the head of his troops; passed through Macclesfield and Congleton, and entered Derby; which is within one-hundred-and-twenty miles of London.—In the mean time, general Wade, with a body of the royal forces, lingered in Yorkshire; and the duke of Cumberland, with another army, was posted near Lichfield. The capital was now a scene of terror and suspense: but this alarm quickly subsided. Stuart was not supported in England as he had expected. In a council of war, which he called at Derby, his proposal, that his army should proceed to London, was rejected: it was determined to return into Scotland without delay; and, on the sixth of December, he commenced his retreat. He was overtaken, at Clifton, by two regiments of dragoons; whom he repulsed with great slaughter: on the 19th he reached Carlisle; and, having reinforced the garrison, he crossed the rivers Eden and Solway, into Scotland; after accomplishing one of the most surprising retreats that history records.

1746. By this time, a considerable body of troops were assembled in Scotland, under the command of general Hawley. On the 14th of January, his army was at Falkirk; whilst the rebels were stationed at Bannockburn. On the 17th, the pretender made a furious attack on the

* No infantry in the world have so lively, and so martial an appearance, as the Highlanders of Scotland. Their present full dress consists in a bonnet, with a broad tartan edge, and a profusion of black ostrich feathers: a scarlet jacket, a plaid thrown over the shoulder, in the manner of a scarf: a tartan kilt, which reaches to within a few inches of the knee, of the same form as the ancient Roman; having a handsome pouch in front: tartan stockings, which ascend only to the calf of the leg; their shoes being fastened with brass buckles. Formerly, they wore a dirk and a tremendous broadsword; and, when rushing to the charge, threw away the musket, and attacked sword in hand. Their officers still retain the dirk and basket-hilted sword, with all their other ancient appendages; and, in this dress, appear not only in the field, but at the royal court.

royal forces; drove them off the field, and captured the greater part of their tents and artillery.

On the 16th of April, the duke of Cumberland advanced to attack the rebels; who, headed by their young prince, were stationed on Culloden Muir. Their number was only about four-thousand; and they were greatly confused and disheartened, by an unsuccessful attempt, made by them a few days before, on the quarters of the duke. The royal army was much more numerous, and in excellent order.—About one o'clock in the afternoon, the cannonading began The artillery of the rebels was ill-served, and did little execution; but that of the king's troops made dreadful havock. After a vigorous resistance, the rebels were defeated. The French picquets covered their retreat by a close and regular fire; and then retired to Inverness, where they surrendered. Twelve-hundred of the rebels were killed or wounded; and the victorious soldiers exercised around the country the usual barbarities of civil war.

The vanquished invader rode off the field with a few friends, crossed the Nairn, and retired to the house of a gentleman in Strattharick; where he conferred with old lord Lovat. Then, having dismissed his followers, he wandered, in wretchedness and solitude, amongst the isles and mountains, for the space of five months; in which time, he underwent a series of misery and dangers, such as it is scarcely credible that a human being could withstand. He was surrounded by armed troops, who chased him from hill to hill, from rock to cavern, and from shore to shore. For some days, he appeared in female dress. One day, he was in the very centre of a party of the royal troops, whom he heard relieving the guard, and conversing. Here, a young man, permitting himself to pass for Charles, and refusing to surrender, was killed on the spot. This contributed greatly to save the life of the pretender, who, being supposed dead, afterwards travelled by several camps, and even passed between their sentinels. He was obliged to trust his life to the fidelity of more than fifty individuals; and, though many of these were in the greatest indigence, tney all nobly resisted the allurement of reward.

At length, a privateer, hired by Sheridan and other Irish adherents, arrived in Lochnannoch; on board of which the unfortunate young prince embarked, on the 20th day of September; and, after passing unseen, during a thick fog, through a British squadron, and being chased by two ships of war, he arrived safely near Morlaix, in France

The victory at Culloden had extinguished the rebellion. An act of attainder was now passed against the principal insurgents: courts were opened in different places for trying the prisoners, and many persons were executed; amongst whom, were, the lords Kilmarnock, Lovat, and Balmerino.

The behaviour of lord Lovat, on the scaffold, was remarkably cheerful, and even facetious. He surveyed the crowd with attention, examined the axe, jested with the executioner; and, after repeating, though with very little propriety, the famous line of Horace, *Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori*, (it is pleasant and honourable to die for one's country,) he laid his head upon the block, with the utmost indifference.

The naval operations, for some time past, were very favourable to Great Britain. But they were more advantageous than glorious. In almost every engagement, she had a superiority of force. The sea officers, recently the most distinguished, were, Anson, Warren, Hawke, and Boscawen. Their victories, which had nearly annihilated the French navy, and destroyed their commerce; the sailing of Boscawen against the French settlements in the East Indies, added to some military disappointments suffered by Louis; induced this monarch to think seriously of peace.

1748. Plenipotentiaries from the contending powers assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle; and, in the month of October, a definitive treaty was signed, and hostilities ceased in all quarters.

Notice was given to the young pretender, that, in consequence of an article in this treaty, he must immediately quit France; but, as he refused to comply with this order and even threatened to shoot the first person that would presume to arrest him, he was, one evening, when stepping out of his coach at the opera-house, in Paris, seized by a party of French guards; who, having tied him with a cord, like a common felon, conducted him beyond the frontiers of the kingdom.

The few years of peace which followed, were the most prosperous and happy that Europe had ever known. Arts and letters were successfully cultivated: manufactures were improved, and commerce extended: the intercourse of mankind was rendered more frequent and easy by means of new roads and newly invented carriages. This was particularly the case in France and England, and between the people of these two rival kingdoms. Forgetting their

past animosities, they seemed to contend only for pre-eminence in refinement and mutual civility.

But that harmony was soon interrupted. With monarchs, the happiness of a people is, in general, of small importance. A criminal ambition is, too frequently, the spring of all their actions. When Louis signed the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, his ministers had formed a plan of encroaching upon the principal English settlements in America and the East Indies: as soon, therefore, as he had recruited his diminished navy, he commenced his operations.

The province of Nova Scotia, in North America, to which the French had given the name of l'Acadie, had been ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht. But, the soil being reputed barren, and the climate intensely cold, only a few English families had settled in that country; notwithstanding its advantageous situation for the fishing trade, and its abounding in naval stores; so that the French inhabitants, having sworn allegiance to the British, had continued to enjoy their lands and ancient privileges under the government of England. As they were exempted from carrying arms against the subjects of Louis, they assumed the name of neutrals. But this peaceful character, they shamefully violated in 1746, when France attempted to regain possession of the province. It therefore became ne-
1749. cessary to people it with subjects of Great Britain; and, in consequence of liberal encouragement, about three-thousand families, many of whom were Germans, arrived in Nova Scotia. The town of Halifax was then built, and the harbour strongly fortified.

New disputes arose, of still more importance. These related to the boundaries of the British provinces, (now included in the United States,) on which the French had systematically tried to encroach. Their plan was, to unite Canada and Louisiana by a chain of forts; and to confine the English in that tract of country which lies within the Alleghany mountains and the sea. Although the British colonists had then made few settlements beyond those mountains, yet the inhabitants of Virginia considered that their territory towards the west was unlimited, except by the ocean; having been partly occupied even before the French discovered Louisiana; and the people of the two Carolinas had never doubted that they might extend their plantations to the banks of the Mississippi, without interfering with any of the European powers. Their only care was to quiet the jealousy of the Indians.

1754. Roused, at length, by the insults and invasion of the French, the several colonies determined to support the British claims in every part of North America. In consequence of this resolution, major Washington, whom we have already mentioned in comparison with a great English character, was despatched from Virginia with four-hundred men; to watch the motions of the enemy, and recover the places which they had taken on the Ohio. Washington encamped on the banks of that river, threw up some works for his defence, and waited to receive a reinforcement from New York. De Villier, having in vain summoned him to abandon his post, attacked him at the head of eight-hundred men; but Washington defended it with so much skill and intrepidity, as to render all the efforts of his enemy abortive. It was, however, agreed that both parties should retire: the Americans towards Will's creek: the French, towards the Monongahela.

In the following year, more important operations were projected, for attacking the French forts along the Ohio. The conduct of the forces was intrusted to general Braddock; who, for that purpose, had been sent from Europe, with two regiments of foot. This officer, having passed the mountains at the head of twenty-two-hundred men, rapidly advanced to attack Fort du Quesne, the chief object of his enterprise. But, unfortunately, he did not use sufficient caution in reconnoitring the savage country; a country with which he was as little acquainted, as with the nature of an American war; in which, the danger of surprise is perpetual, amongst woods, defiles, and morasses: and he was too proud to ask the advice of the provincial officers; for whom he entertained a sovereign contempt. This enterprise terminated in an awful misfortune. Within ten miles of the fort, Braddock fell into an ambuscade of French and Indians; and, after a gallant resistance, in which his obstinacy seemed to increase with the surrounding dangers, he was mortally wounded in the breast, and defeated with the loss of seven-hundred men killed. In this action, the Virginians and other provincials, were not in the least affected by the horrid yells of the Indians, which had paralysed the efforts of the Europeans; and young Washington again gave proofs of that bravery and presence of mind, which, amidst the most appalling conflicts, always accompanied him in his patriotic march.

Meanwhile, both parties made extensive preparations for a vigorous struggle. Reinforcements successively arrived

in America. A detachment of regulars and provincials, under colonel Monckton, quickly reduced the French forts in Nova Scotia, and restored in that province perfect tranquillity.

1756. We shall now return to the affairs of Europe. The island of Minorca, which England had held for nearly fifty years, being threatened by the French, admiral Byng, son of the celebrated lord Torrington, was sent into the Mediterranean, to its relief, with a fleet of seventeen sail; eleven of which were of the line. Prior to his arrival, the enemy had landed on the island fifteen-thousand men, and were besieging the castle of St. Philip, which commands the port and town of Mahon. On Byng's approaching the harbour, he had the satisfaction to see the British colours still flying on the castle; but, notwithstanding this animating circumstance, his attempts to relieve it were feeble, and consequently ineffectual. When a French fleet, very little superior to his in force, advanced to prevent his landing troops, he remained at so great a distance, under pretence of preserving his line unbroken, that his division did very little damage to the enemy, and his own noble ship, of ninety guns, was never properly in the action. However, the division under admiral West defeated three of the French ships; and, if supported, would have gained a complete victory. Although the English fleet had lost only forty men, Byng retired to Gibraltar, and shamefully suffered the whole island to be taken. The public voice being now loud against him, he was superseded by sir Edward Hawke, and brought home to answer for his conduct. He was, accordingly, tried by a court martial, in Portsmouth harbour; was found guilty, and shot in conformity with his awful sentence.

Soon after that miscarriage, the king, urged by the clamours of the nation, which were first caused by the disagreeable complexion of affairs in America, formed a new administration. William Pitt, the most popular man in England, accepted the office of secretary of state for the foreign department, in the place of Henry Fox; and Mr. Legge was made chancellor of the exchequer.

The first measures of Mr. Pitt were highly patriotic and wise. He procured an order for sending home the foreign troops; so long and so justly odious to the kingdom; and assisted in establishing a militia, nearly on the present footing, as the best constitutional defence.

1757. The duke of Cumberland was now on the continent, for the purpose of guarding the Hanoverian dominions. But his measures were injudicious, and ended in defeat. Being hard pressed by the duke de Richelieu, the conqueror of Minorca, he was under the necessity of signing the singular convention of Closter-seven; by which, his army, of thirty-eight thousand foreigners, in British pay, was dissolved, and distributed into different places of cantonment, without being disarmed, or considered as prisoners of war. After this unhappy occurrence, the French were, for a while, in possession of all Hanover. To this, succeeded several attempts on the maritime towns in France; which, in general, were unsuccessful: nor were affairs in America now more cheering. But, at sea, the gallant Hawke, and other brave men, sustained the honour of their flag: in the East Indies, the army were gaining ground, under colonel Clive, captain Coote, and their active associates; and at Minden, in Westphalia, the British troops were highly distinguished. Not even at Blenheim, was more heroism shown. The king of England having formed an alliance with the Prussian Monarch, (his nephew,) prince Frederick of Brunswick, was placed at the head of the combined forces; of which, the British infantry and two battalions of Hanoverians formed the centre. They were opposed at Minden by the French army, commanded by marshal Contades. After an obstinate engagement, the enemy, unable to withstand the intrepid charges of the centre, were defeated with the loss of seven-thousand men, in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

The vigorous and enterprising spirit of Mr. Pitt, seemed to communicate itself to all ranks and classes; especially to the officers of the army and navy. In North America, where, in general, there had occurred delay, disaster, and disgrace, affairs assumed a most favourable aspect. The chief command in that quarter was now held by general Abercrombie; who divided his men, amounting to thirty-six-thousand, into three bodies—one division, of sixteen-thousand, headed by himself, in person: another, of twelve-thousand, by general Amherst; and the third, of eight-thousand, by general Forbes. The first was destined against Ticonderoga and Crown Point: the second against Louisbourg, the capital of Cape Breton: the last against Fort du Quesne.—Amherst, aided by a large fleet under Boscawen, gained possession of the whole island of Cape Breton, and all the inferior stations in the gulph of St. Law-

rence. But Abercrombie was not successful: having made a rash attack upon Ticonderoga, he was driven off with considerable loss. Amherst, however, subsequently captured both this place and Crown Point; meeting scarcely any opposition. General Forbes marched from Philadelphia against Fort du Quesne, through a tract of country very little known, and almost impassable, by reason of woods, mountains, and morasses; and, after incredible exertions, surmounted every difficulty, though continually harassed by the Indians; and took possession of the place Fort du Quesne, which then received the name of Fort Pitt, is the site of the present Pittsburgh.

1759. The most brilliant achievement during this war, was the capture of Quebec. This city, the capital of Lower Canada, is built chiefly upon a steep rock, at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles Naturally strong from its situation, it had received every additional strength which the art of war could give; and was still further defended by its numerous garrison, the bravery of its inhabitants, and a force, superior to the assailants, advantageously posted in its neighbourhood, commanded by the gallant marquis de Montcalm. The reduction of this place, upon the fate of which important consequences depended, was intrusted to general Wolfe; a young officer, of amiable manners, already distinguished in several engagements; beloved and respected by his army and his country. His land forces did not exceed seven-thousand men, British and Americans.

Passing over some bold but unsuccessful operations, in which the enterprising commander lost about five-hundred men, and was reduced to an alarming situation, bordering on despair, we shall proceed to the attack.

The French commander, being apprehensive that the invaders might make a distant landing, and come on the back of the city, detached M. de Bougainville, with fifteen-hundred men, to watch their motions. Meantime, a daring plan was formed, by the three English brigadier generals, Monckton, Townshend, and Murray, and presented to the commander in chief; which was, to land the troops in the night, under the heights of Abraham, a little above the town; in hopes of climbing the rugged ascent before morning. The very boldness of this plan, which was made whilst Wolfe was confined by sickness, recommended it to his intrepid and generous spirit.—The stream was rapid, the shore shelving, the intended landing-place so narrow, as to

be easily missed in the dark; and the ascent so difficult, as hardly to be surmounted in the day-time, even when unopposed. The French general could not think that such an approach would be attempted.—Wolfe is amongst the first that leap on shore: colonel Howe, with the Highlanders and light infantry, lead the way up the hill; and the whole army gain the summit before break of day.—The French general is amazed, astonished! But he hesitates not a moment. When he finds that a battle cannot prudently be avoided, he bravely puts his troops in motion, and hastens to the attack.—At first, the British suffered severely by a galling fire from the marksmen placed in the corn-fields and bushes on the enemy's front. However, when the main body of the French came up, they were so warmly assailed by a shower of bullets, that they soon gave way. At this moment, general Wolfe, whilst pressing on at the head of his grenadiers, received a fatal shot in his breast, and fell in the arms of victory.—On the other side, the brave Montcalm and his second in command were killed.—Under all the agonies of death, Wolfe's anxiety for the success of the day was unabated. When told, that the enemy were entirely routed, and fled on all sides,—"Then," said he, "I am happy;" and he instantly expired. Five days afterwards, Quebec surrendered; and, before the termination of the following year, Montreal, Detroit, Michilimachinac, and every other place within the government of Canada. It was stipulated, that their garrisons should be conveyed to France; and that the Canadians should be secured in their property, and in the free exercise of their religion.

At length, the town of New Orleans, and a few plantations on the Mississippi, were all that remained to France, of her numerous settlements in North America.

Meanwhile, the French talked loudly of retaliating the several insults on her coast, by invading, at the same time, England, Scotland, and Ireland. For that purpose, they assembled large bodies of troops, and collected men of war, transports, and flat-bottomed boats, into their principal seaports. In order to defeat their intention, powerful fleets were sent from England, under Rodney, Boscawen, and Hawke; by whose vigilance, supported by the brave conduct of their seamen, all the enemy's vessels were either sunk, taken, or dispersed. Hawke came up with twenty-one sail of the line and four frigates, under De Conflans, between Belleisle and Cape Quiberon. The French admi

ral, afraid to engage the English, tried to avoid a battle, by keeping on a lee-shore, thick with rocks and shoals, with which he was well acquainted. Hawke, however, regardless of every peril, bore down upon the enemy, and ordered the pilot to lay his own ship, the Royal George, along side that of the French admiral, named the Royal Sun. Conflans did not decline the combat: but a French captain gallantly threw his vessel between them; and one broadside from the Royal George sent his noble ship Le Thesee, with him and all his crew, to the bottom. The Royal Sun drove ashore; many others shared the same fate; and the remainder of the enemy were indebted to a tempestuous night for their escape.

1760. Thurot, rendered famous by his privateering adventures, had got out of Dunkirk a little before Conflans left Brest. His squadron consisted of one ship of forty-four guns, called the Belleisle, and four small frigates; carrying twelve-hundred land forces. After a series of disasters, owing to inclement weather, in which he parted with one of his ships, he sailed for the coast of Ireland, and made himself master of Carrickfergus. Having victualled his fleet and pillaged the town, he received intelligence of the defeat of Conflans, and then put to sea; steering towards France. He was swiftly pursued by captain Elliot, with the Æolus, Pallas, and Brilliant frigates, and overtaken near the Isle of Man. The force on each side was nearly equal; and the engagement that followed was sanguinary and obstinate. The death of Thurot determined the contest. The Belleisle struck her colours, and the rest of the French squadron followed her example.

Great Britain was now every where victorious. She had not only destroyed the power of France in North America, but had reduced it in the East and West Indies and in Africa; and she triumphed on the waves. Yet all these conquests were thought insufficient by the people. They complained that some islands in the West Indies were still in possession of the French. With more justice, they were incensed, that the war in Germany was continued, for the protection of Hanover, and the assistance of Prussia.

In the midst of this clamour, the king, on the 25th of October, was suddenly taken ill, and almost instantly expired, in the seventy-seventh year of his age, and thirty-fourth of his reign. "His character," according to an impartial historian, "is by no means complicated. Violent

in his temper, but humane and candid in his disposition, if he failed to command the respect of those who were about his person, he conciliated their affection. If his understanding was not very capacious, his judgment was sound; and if he had little of the munificence of a great monarch, he possessed the economy of a prudent prince."

This reign is distinguished by many writers of eminence. The poets are, Somerville, and Christopher Pitt; West Collins, and Shenstone; Young, Akenside, and Gray; Hervey and Aaron Hill; Carey, Southern, and Allan Ramsay Hoadly, Simpson, and Maclaurin, were mathematicians anatomy and physic engrossed the talents of Fordyce and Cheyne, Monro, Cheselden and Meade. In his "Chace," Somerville delights and interests us by his animated and correct description of the various modes of hunting in different countries.—Pitt is known chiefly as a translator. His versions of the Æneid and Vida's Art of Poetry, are harmonious and correct. The former is, by many judicious critics, preferred to that of Dryden.—West nas given an elegant translation of Pindar; and some valuable works on religion.—Collins was a man of extensive learning, and vigorous faculties; but he has left no works of importance.—The poems of Shenstone consist of elegies, odes, moral pieces, humorous sallies, and ballads. His delight was in rural pleasures, and in rural elegance; to enliven the prospect and diversify the surface of his grounds, by forming the tedious labyrinth, and winding the channel of the brook.—In the Universal Passion, Night Thoughts, and Revenge, of Doctor Young, there is a copious display of the highest order of talent. The first, for which he received three-thousand pounds, is a species of satire, between that of Horace and that of Juvenal. It is related of Young, that one day, being much engaged in reading a book, he wandered, with it in his hand, into a military camp; where he had much difficulty in proving that he was only an absent poet, and not a spy.—Akenside is best known by his Pleasures of the Imagination; and Gray, by his Elegy in a Church Yard: both of which are esteemed classical productions.

Eminent, however, as were those candidates for poetic fame, the genius of Great Britain was still more highly displayed, by writers of a different class. As a divine, whose learning was solely employed in critical researches appertaining to his own profession, Doctor Lowth must be considered in the very first rank. Samuel Clarke, also,

was a critical divine, and published improved editions of Cæsar's Commentaries, and Homer.

Richardson was intended to transmit his name to futurity by exercising his talents in a less serious description of literature. This celebrated author, though acquainted with no language but his own, stands in the very first order of English writers. His epistolary novels—Pamela, Clarissa, and sir Charles Grandison, have given him a just claim to the title of founder of that species of amusement.—Fielding, as a novelist, is not inferior to Richardson. His characters are his own, and drawn with the pencil of a master. He does not, however, rest his fame on his novels, alone: before he reached his thirtieth year, he had written no less than eighteen pieces for the stage; several of which have remained in public estimation—Scotland has great reason to boast of Smollett. He is no less remarkable for the greatness, than for the versatility, of his genius. Educated as a surgeon, he served in that capacity at the siege of Carthagena; and, in his Roderick Random, has given us an account of his expedition. His early adventures seem to have impressed him with that extraordinary turn for displaying the human character in so many different situations, and in so just a colouring. But, to the work already mentioned, as well as his Peregrine Pickle, Count Fathom, sir Launcelot Greaves, and Humphrey Clinker, some objections may be made, respecting their occasional want of delicacy. We are much indebted to him, however, for his fine translations of Gil Blas, Don Quixote, and Telemachus; but do not so highly admire his continuation of Hume's History of England.

At Oxford, were first promulgated the doctrine and discipline of the numerous sect called Methodists; an appellation given to them on account of the rigid system which they pursued. Whitfield and the Wesleys may be considered as the great extenders of their church, though it is said that Law was the original founder. Georgia, the last settled of all the English colonies now under the government of the United States, was planted in the reign of George the second. The first governor was general Oglethorpe; who, with about one-hundred poor people, began his operations on Savannah river.

In 1752, the year commenced, in England, on the first of January, instead of the twenty-fifth of March; and the third of September was reckoned as the fourteenth. by the latter change, correcting an error in the kalendar; which

had been increasing for many ages. This alteration, called the Gregorian, or new style, had not been adopted in any of the protestant states until the year 1700; nor is it yet used in the Russian empire.

The erection of Westminster bridge, over the Thames, was completed in 1750, after nearly twelve years being employed in its erection. This magnificent and useful building would do honour to the taste and public spirit of any age or people. It consists of fifteen semi-circular arches, is more than twelve-hundred feet in length, and cost three-hundred-and-ninety-thousand pounds sterling.

CHAPTER XVIII.

GEORGE THE THIRD.

FIRST PART.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

1760—1820.

1760. IF the glory of a nation can justly be estimated by its success in arms, the British empire was now a brilliant object of admiration. The martial spirit of the people, directed by accomplished leaders, supported by immense resources, which were industriously concentrated, and skilfully applied by a patriotic minister, gave to the young sovereign an exalted situation.

George the third, who ascended the throne in his twenty-third year, the first prince of the Brunswick line that was born in England, was son of the late Frederick, prince of Wales, and grandson of George the second. In the ensuing year, he was married to the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz; and their coronation was performed with the usual magnificence, in Westminster Abbey. As yet, he was little known by the people. Brought up in retirement, introduced neither to the pleasures nor the business of a court, it seemed a leading object in his education, to preserve him from the contaminating allurements, thrown, at an early age, in the way of a royal heir. The attention thus devoted to his welfare, was not un-

profitably given. Whatever political impropriety we can discover, through the almost impenetrable veil of ministerial management, we can still trace the benefits of a careful superintendence, in his morals.

No immediate change occurred, either in the national policy, or in the cabinet. One of the first acts of royalty, was introducing into the privy council the earl of Bute; a nobleman who enjoyed an ascendency over the king's mind in consequence of the office which he had held in directing his education; a duty which he apparently discharged with fidelity, however we may find occasion to condemn his conduct in public. In the following spring, the parliament, after appropriating the sum of eight-hundred-thousand pounds as the annual expenditure of the civil list, passed an act, in accordance with the king's recommendation, which gave additional security to the independence of the judges; by continuing their commissions during good behaviour, without being liable to removal on the death of the sovereign; a salutary amendment to the regulations made in the reign of William the third. Some changes ensued in the administration. Mr. Legge was removed from the office of chancellor of the exchequer, and was succeeded by lord Barrington. The earl of Bute was made one of the secretaries of state, and the vice-royalty of Ireland was conferred on lord Halifax.

1761. An expedition, secretly prepared in the spring, sailed in the month of March from Spithead, under the orders of commodore Keppel and general Hodgson, and in a few days arrived off Belleisle on the coast of Brittany. The first attempt to land was defeated. The next, however, was successful; but, so resolutely was the place defended, that two months were employed in its reduction. In the East and the West Indies, the British still maintained an overwhelming superiority.

During these hostilities, the belligerents were anxiously attentive to promote a peace. Negotiations were for some time going forward. Although the conduct to be observed with respect to the German allies, was a matter of considerable difficulty, the English ministers having declared their resolution of preserving their faith with the king of Prussia and the neighbouring princes; yet that obstacle was gradually removing. But, unfortunately, the French diplomatists introduced a highly offensive subject, relating to the affairs of Spain; a power then neutral, and of course not directly concerned in the deliberations. The interfer-

ence arose from a family connexion between the French and Spanish courts; which had long been a source of jealousy to Great Britain. Cordiality and confidence, therefore, were now destroyed, and the negotiation terminated.

The active and provident mind of Mr. Pitt conceiving that Spain intended, on the first favourable moment, to become a party in the contest, he urged the policy of including that country in the war. But this measure his colleagues opposed, as not only rash, but unjustifiable. Wherefore, finding himself unable to carry his point, and being, from his temper and long continued success, incapable of bearing contradiction, he resigned his situation, and the office of principal secretary of state was given to lord Egremont.

Although the measure proposed by Mr. Pitt, of an immediate attack on Spain, when considered with the cool reflection of an experienced politician, could not be declared one of necessity; nor, when judged by the imperious dictates of morality, could not be recommended; yet, his prophetic notice of that country's hostile inclination was correct. As soon as the negotiation with France was broken off, the behaviour of the Spanish court left no doubt on the minds of the British cabinet of its intention, and lord Bristol, the ambassador at Madrid, suddenly took leave. The
1762. usual festivities of the new year were scarcely ended, when war was formally declared. Though already loaded with heavy charges; burthened by an accumulating debt; without any expectation of assistance in the contest; this great accession of hazard seemed little to affect the spirits of the nation. Indeed, a war with Spain is generally popular in England; where, she is viewed, especially by the navy, rather as a tempting prey, than a formidable antagonist. This dangerous, demoralizing avidity, first taught a people by their monarchs, and now influencing many who boast a higher degree of public virtue than is supposed to prevail in Europe, is the despicable feeling of a pirate, not the noble impulse of an offended patriot.

In expectation of this rupture, it had been determined to curtail the power of France in the West Indies. Accordingly, twelve-thousand troops under Monckton, and eighteen ships of the line commanded by Rodney, were sent against Martinico. A landing being easily made, the army proceeded to Fort Royal; a place guarded by a strong citadel, and by two powerful batteries. These, however, were with great intrepidity taken by storm. The town then cap

itulated. St. Pierre, the capital, was the next object of attack: but further operations became unnecessary, as the governor of the colony surrendered the whole island. This success was followed by the easy acquisition of all its dependencies; and thus, the whole Caribeean chain were now under the British dominion.

The next object of attack, in that quarter of the globe, was Havana; the centre of the Spanish trade and navigation in the West Indies. The fleet destined for this important and dangerous service, consisted of nineteen ships of the line, eighteen small armed vessels, and one-hundred-and-fifty transports; carrying fourteen-thousand land forces: the former, under the direction of admiral Pococke; the latter, under general lord Albemarle. Fort Moro, which was considered as almost impregnable, having been stormed through a breach made by springing a mine, Havana, with a district extending one-hundred-and-eighty miles, was yielded to the victors. A richer conquest has rarely been effected. Besides fourteen ships of the line, and four frigates, the British deprived the enemy of money and merchandise amounting to three-millions sterling. In the same month, an armament sailed from Madras, commanded by admiral Cornish and colonel sir William Draper, against Luconia, the principal of the Philippine islands. Having stormed the capital, Manilla, they made an agreement with its inhabitants, by which their lives, liberties and property, were allowed them, on their promising a ransom of one-million sterling. With the surrender of the capital were included the whole country and depending settlements. The ransom, however, was never paid.

By the rupture with Spain, an ancient ally of Great Britain was involved in war. This was Portugal; a country gradually declining into disorganization and debility. A memorial, inviting the king of Portugal to join the alliance against England, had been presented by the ambassadors of France and Spain: but, as he refused compliance, his territories were invaded by a powerful army. However, by the assistance of a British force under general Burgoyne, the feeble Portuguese were saved from the impending ruin.

Lord Bute's preponderating influence on the king's mind being very sensibly felt by his ministerial colleagues, an extensive change occurred in the members of the government. The duke of Newcastle, who held the post of first commissioner of the treasury, usually, though not always considered, as giving the title of "premier," retired, and

was succeeded by the favourite. The new minister, either from the increased difficulty of continuing the war in the face of a powerful opposition, or a desire of relieving the nation from its burthens, was induced to treat for peace. In this measure, the Bourbon courts agreeing, it was not difficult to accomplish so happy an event. Preliminaries, afterwards ratified, were signed at Fontainbleau, on the third of November. The most important articles related to North America. The French ceded to great Britain the entire province of Canada, and that part of Louisiana situated east of the Mississippi; together with Cape Breton and the other islands in the gulf of St. Lawrence. Spain yielded East and West Florida, and all her possessions east and south-east of the Mississippi; and confirmed to the English a claim of cutting logwood on the coast of Honduras. In return, she obtained restitution of Havana, and all the other conquests in the late war.

In this treaty, the interests of Frederick were not entirely neglected. France was withdrawn from the German war, so that Austria and Prussia were left to settle their quarrel by themselves; and, before the close of the year, an adjustment was signed at Hubertsburg, giving the latter quiet possession of all the territory belonging to her at the commencement of hostilities.

1763. The winding up of the war expenses, as usual, exhibited large arrears of debt. To satisfy this, new financial schemes were tried. Amongst these, was a tax of four shillings a hogshead on cider, to be paid by *the maker;* a most unfeeling and impolitic tax. For, surely, no imposts can offer a greater outrage to the happiness and domestic rights of mankind, than such as give an excise officer frequent admission to a dwelling—the boasted "castle" of a freeman. This obnoxious measure did not pass without strenuous opposition. Lord Bute resigned his place, and was succeeded by Mr. George Grenville.

But the influence of the ex-minister was not, it was supposed, lessened by his retirement. He was still the object of much virulent, and perhaps merited, abuse. Of this, the chief vehicle was the "North Briton;" a periodical publication set up by Mr. Wilkes, in opposition to the "Briton," conducted by Smollett, which advocated the measures of lord Bute.

1764. This period will long be remembered. Events of singular importance arose from the tyrannical system of finance which now commenced. A severe, but salu-

tary lesson, was given to a misguided sovereign. A lively prospect of relief was opened to the future exertions of the oppressed. The bold experiment began, of laying taxes on the North American Colonies. For levying them, the naval commanders on the American coast were sworn to act as revenue officers; the result of which measure was the condemnation of many cargoes, without any means of redress in England.

1765. In the following winter; an interesting character departed. The chevalier St. George, son of James the second, ended an anxious existence, at Rome, in the seventy-eighth year of his age; leaving two sons—Charles, the adventurer of 1745, and Henry, cardinal York.*

The marquis of Rockingham was now at the head of the treasury: the duke of Grafton and general Conway were secretaries of state. By the repeal of the cider tax, and a modification of the obnoxious colonial imposts, the Rockingham party obtained the general approbation of the people. This, however, did not insure them the favour of the court. The whole tenor of their administration was by no means pleasing to the sovereign; or, at least, to those by whom he was secretly advised. Another change was made. The duke of Grafton was appointed in the room of Rockingham; and Mr. Pitt, now raised to the title of earl of Chatham, received the office of lord privy seal, and was regarded as the leading minister.

In the house of Commons, this great statesman had opposed, by his uncommon powers of eloquence, the principles of colonial taxation. Alluding to the spirit which that obnoxious measure had excited, "I rejoice," said he, "that America has resisted. Three-millions of people, so dead to all feelings of liberty, as voluntarily to submit to be slaves, would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest."

In the East Indies, a new foe was added, to those already raised by commercial avidity and national ambition. We mean Hyder Ally; an adventurer, who, from the humble condition of a private soldier, was now a powerful prince,

1767. in possession of a large tract of the Malabar coast Near Trincomalee, this extraordinary man was, however, entirely defeated by colonel Smith, and sought a temporary safety in the mountains; from which, having de-

* Charles died at Rome, in 1788; and Cardinal York, the last of that royal house, about the year 1810.

scended, he was, in the following year, again beaten, by colonel Wood.

Soon after this, Great Britain was surprised by another change in the cabinet. Treated with disregard, either on account of his bodily infirmities, or his stern, uncomplying disposition, lord Chatham resigned the national helm, and the privy seal was given to the earl of Bristol.

1769. But the agitation of the public mind made it necessary for the king to make a further experiment This ferment arose from the distracted state of the American colonies, and a remarkable struggle between the house of commons and Mr. Wilkes. Many resignations occurred Amongst the number, the duke of Grafton made room for lord North; who then commenced his long prime-ministry Mr. Wilkes, who has been already mentioned, as editor of the North Briton, was at one time lord mayor of London, and was distinguished for the long political warfare which he sustained against the court, and the government influence in the house of commons. His contest with colonel Luttrel, (afterwards lord Carhampton,) who, by an extraordinary stretch of parliamentary law, was admitted to take his seat for Middlesex, in preference to Mr. Wilkes, the fairly chosen member, is an important occurrence in the history of England; and occupies a large portion of the celebrated letters published with the name of Junius.

1772. In the month of February, a message from the king to both houses excited considerable interest. The immediate cause of this arose from two marriages lately contracted by his two brothers, the duke of Gloucester with lady Waldegrave, and the duke of Cumberland with a widow lady, Mrs. Norton. Accordingly, a bill was enacted, which, with some limitations, rendered void all marriages of the royal family, made without the king's consent, formally declared in council.

The situation of the colonies now claims undivided attention. For several years past, a high degree of agitation existed in America. But, that we might exhibit a narration so very important, uninterrupted, and detached as much as possible from the affairs of Europe, the history of the colonial misunderstanding has been, in a great measure, postponed.

Although the general feeling in England and America had caused the repeal of some of the iniquitous imposi tions, amongst which was a stamp-tax, yet the *right* of levying taxes was not abandoned by the court. Accordingly, (in

1767,) Charles Townshend, procured an act for laying duties on glass, paper, painters' colours and tea, when imported into the colonies. This revived the former discontents. At a public meeting of the inhabitants of Boston, measures were adopted for the encouragement of home-manufactures, and the promotion of frugality, by restraining the use of foreign superfluities. This salutary example was followed in the other provinces. In the ensuing spring, the ferment was increasing: by the king's order, the assembly of Massachusetts was dissolved: most of the colonies determined against importing any English goods, during the existing duties: the people of Boston again convened, and resolved to prepare arms and ammunition; and a convention from ninety-six townships, held in that city, sent a statement of their transactions to England. In September, a detachment of artillery arrived from Halifax; and, soon afterwards, general Gage appeared, with two regiments from Ireland. These seem to have produced a temporary calm, as the remainder of the year passed in tranquillity.

Yielding a little to the mercantile voice, lord North withdrew the obnoxious imposts, on all the articles except tea; the duty on which was retained, apparently for the purpose of still asserting the right of taxation. This impolitic measure was a source of perpetual enmity, and caused in several colonies the importation of tea to be prohibited. At length, a regulation, providing that the salaries of provincial governors and judges should be paid by the king, at whose will they could, at any moment, be removed, aggravated the public jealousy and dissatisfaction.—The tendency to riot was first displayed by an attack on a royal schooner posted at Providence in Rhode Island, to prevent smuggling. It was boarded by a number of armed men, who put the captain and crew on shore, and burned the vessel. The next indication of popular resentment occurred at Boston. On the eighteenth of December, a party, disguised as Mohawk Indians, entered three ships laden with tea, and threw their entire cargoes into the water. In consequence of this, the port was closed, the charter of Massachusetts new-modeled by the British government, and additional forces were sent to general Gage, as governor of the province and commander in chief—Matters daily grew more alarming—anarchy was rapidly increasing: general Gage fortified Boston neck, seized the militia-stores at Cambridge, and conveyed them to Boston.

1773.

1774. Early in September, a Congress, representing twelve of the old colonies, was held at Philadelphia. The sentiments expressed by this respectable assembly were constitutional and loyal, sensible and manly, in language elegant and perspicuous. They expostulated, by letter, with the British general, on his hostile proceedings; published a declaration of rights, and an enumeration of grievances; recommended, as a means of obtaining redress, a non-importation, non-exportation, and non-consumption agreement, to which they bound themselves and their constituents; and drew up a petition to the king, and a memorial to the English people.

775. The sword was at length unsheathed. To it, remained the paramount decision. Civil warfare soon spread its desolating reign. When a party which general Gage had sent from Boston to seize the provincial stores at Concord, reached Lexington, a body of militia appeared, to arrest their progress; and a short skirmish ensued, in which several of the latter were killed. The royal detachment then proceeded; and, having destroyed some ammunition at Concord, they were attacked, and commenced a retreat, which was a continued battle. At sunset, they arrived at Charlestown, near Boston; having lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, nearly three-hundred men. After this, the whole province was roused: twenty-thousand militia invested Boston; a small party, under colonels Allen and Arnold, surprised Ticonderoga; and Crown Point was taken by colonel Warner.

The congress, having assembled a second time, chose Mr. Hancock president, and took the most effectual measures for defending the United Colonies.

Near the end of May, the English generals, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, arrived at Boston, with large reinforcements, and the harbour was filled with ships of war.

Further hostilities, were, of course, mutually expected The post of Charlestown, separated from Boston only by Charles River, being considered by the Americans an important acquisition, they sent a party, at night, to throw up works upon Bunker's Hill, an eminence commanding the isthmus which joins the peninsula to the continent.

This was effected, with so great silence and expedition, that, before day-break, the defences were nearly completed A heavy cannonade soon poured in from the vessels in the harbour; and, about noon, a strong body of troops, under

Howe and Pigot, was sent to storm the place. As they approached, so hot and well directed a fire was opened against them, that they were thrown into confusion, and, for a while, general Howe was left nearly alone. Being, however, soon rallied, they made a furious attack on the American works, and forced them at every quarter. The loss of the British, in killed and wounded, was above one-thousand men—about a third of their entire number: that of the provincials, above four-hundred. Amongst the latter, was the brave general Warren, universally lamented by his countrymen. But this defeat was not sufficient to dishearten the Americans. They immediately afterwards formed redoubts in another situation.

In October, general Gage having returned to England, the command of the British devolved on Howe.

Meanwhile, Georgia had joined the continental alliance. The Thirteen United Colonies were, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware; Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The era of their determined struggle now arrived. At the head of their armies was placed George Washington; already experienced, and not less eminent as a soldier, than respectable as a country gentleman.

This year terminated in an unsuccessful attempt made by the Americans on Quebec. General Montgomery, after capturing fort St. John and Montreal, having attacked that city by escalade, was, with most of the men near his person, killed upon the spot, and a division of his army was taken prisoners. The next important occurrence was the evacuation of Boston. On the 17th of March, that town was entered by Washington. In the month of June, generals Clinton and Cornwallis, aided by a fleet under sir Peter Parker, attacked Sullivan's Island, in South Carolina, in hopes of forcing their way into Charleston, but were obliged to retire, after considerable loss.

1776.

At length, the flame of patriotism could neither be extinguished by the terrors of an army, nor damped by the experiments of temporizing duplicity. The harshness of the parent had rent the bands of natural affection, and her children no longer owed her either duty or respect. On the 4th of July, the colonies renounced their allegiance to Great Britain, and signed a Declaration of Independence This celebrated declaration, drawn by the philosophic Jef

ferson, gives a particular detail of their grievances, and has these memorable sentiments; "We hold these truths to be self evident—that all men are created equal: that they are endowed, by their Creator, with certain unalienable rights: that, amongst these, are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted amongst men; deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed: that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter, or abolish it, and to institute a new government; laying its foundation upon such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness."

In the remainder of this, and throughout the succeeding year, the chief military operations occurred at Long Island, Trenton, and Bennington; Saratoga, Brandywine, and Germantown; with various success; but, on the whole, rather in favour of the British. However, the spirit of the great Frederick, divested of its impurities, seemed diffused amongst the colonies. Their energies, unrelaxed by disappointment, arose more vigorous after every misfortune; and an event, which lord Chatham had predicted, inspired
1778. them with additional hope. On the 6th of February, the American commissioners at Paris concluded a treaty with Louis, which was productive of most important benefit, from the aid afforded them, in extensive naval cooperation, in military stores, and a large reinforcement of veteran troops.—Of all the French officers in this war, the marquis La Fayette was the most distinguished, and the most entitled to the gratitude of America. His services were rendered from a pure love of liberty. But the same cannot be said of Louis. His aid was given through opposition to England; not through affection towards the oppressed.

Other events, too, concurred in favour of the colonies. The summer had scarcely commenced, before Spain, on some slight and general charges, declared war against the British; and in the course of the revolutionary contest, Holland was added to the number of their antagonists. Thus, was England engaged, at the same time, with four enemies; without a single ally, except some German mercenaries.

The next principal occurrences were at Monmouth, Savannah, Stony-Point, and Charleston; Waxsaw, Camden, Broad River, Guilford, Eutaw Springs, and Yorktown.

Although the latter was not the closing scene of this san-

guinary contest, yet it was there that the Americans gave the decisive blow. Lord Cornwallis having fixed on York-town, situated on the peninsula between York and James rivers in Virginia, as a place the best adapted to his plans, took post there, with about seven-thousand chosen troops, and commenced the necessary fortifications. In the mean time, Washington, always vigilant and active, spread a report, that his next object of attack was New York, and that he had relinquished his intention of marching to relieve Virginia. In conjunction, therefore, with the French commander, Rochambeau, having given a hot alarm to that city, he suddenly crossed North River, proceeded through New Jersey to Philadelphia, thence to the head of Elk River on the Chesapeake; and, after there embarking a division of his troops, pursued his march, with the main body, through Baltimore, to Annapolis, in Maryland.—The French admiral, De Grasse, having entered the Chesapeake, with twenty-eight sail of the line, sent the welcome news of his arrival to the combined army; blocked up York River, and occupied James River, to a considerable extent, to prevent Cornwallis attempting a retreat to Carolina. Soon afterwards, a partial and indecisive engagement took place off the mouth of the Bay, between the French and the English fleet; the latter of twenty sail, under admiral Greaves; when, the former being reinforced by a squadron from Rhode Island, the English returned to New York From this time, De Grasse was entire master of the Chesapeake; and thus, all the hopes of the blockaded forces were destroyed. Invested by an army more than double the number of his own; with no better cover than earthen works, hastily thrown up, and assailed by nearly one-hundred pieces of heavy ordnance, the British general surrendered, and all his troops became prisoners of war.

Cornwallis, who, with all his officers, was set at liberty on parole, publicly acknowledged the liberal treatment experienced by himself and his whole army.

Meanwhile, the people of England were thrown into great alarm. An extensive plan had been formed, by the united powers of France and Spain, for an expedition to the English coast; probably intending an invasion, should a favourable opportunity occur. Accordingly, the combined fleets, above sixty in number, with a vast attendance of frigates and smaller armed vessels, having passed, unobserved, the English fleet of thirty-eight sail, under admiral Hardy, then cruising in the Bay of Biscay, appeared for several days

before Plymouth. But, fortunately for that depot, no attempt against it was made; and the enemy, after suffering much from sickness, returned to Brest.

Sir George Rodney, having been appointed, with a strong squadron, to the chief naval command in the West Indies and ordered on his way thither to relieve Gibraltar, then closely blockaded by the Spaniards; when only a few days at sea, captured a large convoy, bound from St. Sebastian to Cadiz. Their lading consisted principally of flour; which he sent to Gibraltar, at that time much in want of provisions. Off Cape St. Vincents, he encountered a Spanish fleet of eleven ships of the line; seven of which, including the admiral's vessel, he captured or destroyed. Soon afterwards, admiral Parker had a severe action with the Dutch fleet, under Zoutman, on the Dogger Bank. They were of nearly equal force; and, after an uninterrupted cannonading for three hours and a half, both squadrons lay like logs upon the water, incapable of further efforts.

In the month of May following, the British lost the province of West Florida; one of the principal acquisitions retained by the treaty of Paris.

Even their ancient possessions in the American seas were with difficulty preserved. Jamaica, however, was freed from its perilous situation by the bravery and good seamanship of Rodney; who, with thirty-six sail of the line, encountered an equal force, commanded by the French admiral, de Grasse. In this action, which continued from seven in the morning until sun-set, Rodney practised a new manœuvre, since attended with so great success—that of breaking the enemy's line. Both sides displayed determined courage. But, when the crew of De Grasse's ship, the Ville de Paris of one-hundred-and-twelve guns, had suffered prodigious carnage, he struck his flag to sir Samuel Hood, in another vessel, the Barfleur; and the French fleet, after losing five others, bore away for St. Domingo.

1782. The most interesting military scene, afforded in this year, was the siege of Gibraltar. Although the town had been already ruined, by the almost constant firing of the Spaniards during upwards of three years, yet small progress had been made in overpowering its terrific defences; and a sally, made in the preceding November, by its vigilant commander, general Elliot, had spread ruin through the nearest works of the besiegers. They were however, still determined to persevere. To diffuse a spirit of enterprise in their army, twelve-thousand French troops

were procured: the supreme command was given to the duke of Crillon; and the plan of attack confided to the chevalier d'Arcon. The preparations now made, by land and water, were immense. Volunteers and spectators assembled from almost every part of Europe; amongst whom, were two French princes of the blood, the count d'Artois, and the duke of Bourbon.

The grand project of d'Arcon was founded on the construction of floating batteries; so contrived, that it was thought they could neither be sunk nor set on fire. Besides having timbers of extraordinary thickness, they were fortified, on the exposed side, by a wall of cork and soaked timber; between the layers of which, wet sand was interposed; whilst a circulation of water was provided through the entire mass. The vessels thus prepared, were ten ships, from six-hundred to fourteen-hundred tons burthen; cut down to accommodate the intended superstructure, and furnished with brass cannon of unusual weight. On the land side, new and powerful batteries were opened; and forty-eight sail of the line, with many smaller vessels, were brought to co-operate.—In the morning of the 13th of September, the ten battering ships being moored in a line, from the old to the new mole, at nine-hundred yards from the Rock of Gibraltar, there instantly commenced a cannonading and bombardment, by assailants and defenders, more tremendous and awful than the imagination can conceive. But the showers of red-hot shot, which issued from the walls, were not to be resisted by any efforts of human art. Confusion and distress were hourly augmenting: the flames broke out from stem to stern: all the vessels, in succession, blew up; and not a vestige was left, on the following day, of an apparatus so novel and formidable.

When the affair was decided, the English displayed most generous conduct, in saving their enemies who were crying for help amidst the flames.

The possibility of subduing the Americans at length became hopeless, even in the opinion of the crown; and opposition to the unhappy measures of administration was gradually increasing. The colonists had a large share of popular regard in England, and many of the most eloquent senators espoused their cause. Edmund Burke and Charles James Fox, (son of Henry Fox, created lord Holland,) the ablest members of the lower house, had long combated the unjust proceedings, with a strength and

brilliancy of argument, worthy of ancient Greece or Rome General Conway, too, was active on the side of justice. He succeeded in a motion, that an address should be presented to the king, expressing a hope that a reconciliation might be effected; to which, his majesty gave a satisfactory reply. This interposition of the commons produced an agreeable effect: in a few days afterwards, the administration was dissolved. The marquis of Rockingham was appointed first lord of the treasury, the earl of Shelburne and Mr. Fox were made secretaries of state: lord Camden, Mr. Burke, Richard Brindesly Sheridan, the duke of Grafton, lord John Cavendish, admiral Keppel, and the duke of Richmond, also, were members of the new government. The command of the forces was given to general Conway the vice royalty of Ireland to the duke of Portland, and lord Thurlow was continued in the office of chancellor.

Several highly commendable measures of economy and reform succeeded. Revenue officers were disqualified from voting at parliamentary elections, public contractors rendered incapable of sitting in the house of commons, and many sinecures abolished.

But, whilst engaged in these laudable improvements, the new ministry received a fatal blow, by the death of the premier, lord Rockingham. To the vacant place at the head of the treasury, the earl of Shelburne was advanced; which appointment was followed by the resignation of the most distinguished members of administration; amongst whom, were Cavendish, and Fox; Burke, Sheridan, and the duke of Portland. William Pitt, second son of lord Chatham, (who died in 1778,) was made chancellor of the exchequer, and lord Temple succeeded to the government of Ireland. The former, afterwards so celebrated, had already given a favourable specimen of his oratorical powers, in several debates in favour of reform.

The pacific inclination to which we have alluded, aided by the mediation of Russia and Austria, happily produced a termination of hostilities. The dispute between Great Britain and her colonies was the first subject of attention, and the first matter that was accommodated. On the thirtieth of November, preliminaries were arranged at Paris. By these, the Independence of the Thirteen United States was acknowledged; many concessions were made to the new republic; amongst which, was the right of fishing on the banks of Newfoundland, and on all other fishing grounds previously frequented by Americans. This memor-

able adjustment was ratified in the autumn of the following year; and, at the same time, definitive treaties were signed with all the other belligerents. On the part of England, the commissioners were, Mr. Fitzherbert and Mr. Oswald. Those of America were Dr. Franklin, Messrs. Adams, Jay, and Laurens. Franklin, the great American Philosopher, had been deputed by his countrymen to negotiate in London; where he was examined before the house of commons, and completely baffled the antipacific members, by his uncommon smartness of reply.

During the colonial war, the East Indies, also, displayed a scene of miserable devastation. The calamity, usually suffered from the individual usurpations of the native princes, was increased by the collision of the French and Dutch interests. The most distinguished military officer, in that quarter, was sir Eyre Coote. But the army was deprived of the services of this gallant officer, by his death; which happened at Madras; arising from a constitution worn out by long-continued attention to the arduous duties of a military life. Latterly, he had frequent opportunities of showing his activity and talents, in opposing Hyder Ally; whom he very frequently defeated. This noted sultan having died, was succeeded by his son, Tippoo Saib; a prince who, with the territorial acquisitions, inherited also the martial and political genius, of his father. The government of the British possessions in the East, was, at this period, intrusted to Warren Hastings; whose conduct in that important office afterwards became a subject of much parliamentary discussion.

Let us now turn from these miserable conflicts. Divested of her sanguinary passions, let us view human nature in the occasional exercise of Christian meekness. In the Austrian dominions, the spirit of improvement, had been operating, in the most laudable manner, by the abolition of torture, the introduction of religious toleration, the releasing of the peasants in Bohemia from slavery, and granting them portions of land at easy rents. This just and enlightened policy of the emperor Joseph, having called forth, in the Irish house of commons, the eulogium of Mr. Dillon of Lismullin, of which the emperor was informed through the medium of the public journals, he handsomely conferred upon that gentleman a German title—baron of the Holy Roman Empire; an honour, approved by the British monarch. In return for this attention, rather singular on the part of sovereigns, the Irish member sent to the continent,

his son, the present general Dillon; with a request that his imperial majesty would accept of the youth's services in the Austrian army; to which, he very graciously acceded. That liberal spirit soon afterwards produced in England a repeal of several penalties and disabilities affecting the Roman Catholics. These included the punishment of officiating catholic clergymen, as felons and traitors: the forfeiture of the estates of catholic heirs educated abroad: the power given to a son or near relation, being a protestant, of seizing a father's or other relation's estate: and a restriction on members of that communion from acquiring landed property by purchase. The lenity of the times, however, had, in practice mitigated the rigour of these intolerant enactments. Yet, still, they were a national disgrace, and a most serious grievance; as the liability to incur such penalties, was, of itself, a degrading hardship. This benevolent measure, brought forward by sir George Saville, was received with universal approbation. In a few days afterwards, Mr. Gardiner having introduced the subject in the Irish parliament, some concessions were obtained in favour of his suffering countrymen.

But, in Scotland, these relaxations were not viewed with the same degree of liberality. Associations were formed there, inimical to Roman Catholic indulgence. At the head of these, was lord George Gordon; (brother to the duke of Gordon;) a man of singular character, compounded of enthusiasm, artifice, and folly. Through his exertions, the fanatical spirit was roused in London; but his partisans in that city were the very lowest dregs of the populace. Its effects, however, were, for a while, extremely dangerous. The demoniacal frenzy which impelled them, created not only serious alarm, but extensive mischief; requiring the aid of a strong military force, to arrest its progress. They destroyed all the catholic chapels, in and around the city: they burned the prisons of Newgate, the Fleet, and the King's-bench, and many private houses; amongst which, was the dwelling of that great lawyer, lord Mansfield, with all his invaluable papers. Nearly five-hundred of these deluded wretches, by death or wounds, felt the consequences of their diabolical behaviour. Gordon was tried on a charge of high treason, but acquitted; his crime not appearing to the jury in accordance with the indictment.

This period is memorable on account of the removal of those illiberal and unjust restrictions, which had so long affected the trade of Ireland, and rendered her parliament

dependent, in some measure, on the ministers of England The cause of this important victory, for in that light it must be viewed, deserves attention. We shall, therefore, trace it to its source.—A refusal, by the English parliament, to remove those grievous impediments, having caused meetings in Dublin, resolutions were there taken against the importation of any British manufactures, or other articles, which could be made or produced in Ireland. But, as the restrictions were not likely, by that means, to be removed, something further became necessary. The next object, therefore, was to strengthen the hands of the people. This could now be readily accomplished. The country being threatened by a French invasion, an opportunity was afforded of arming for national defence. Accordingly, (in 1779,) associations were formed for raising volunteer corps; which soon became general, and included every party. To join them, was justly regarded as an act of patriotism; and men of the first fortune served in the ranks. Government, however, viewing with apprehension these numerous bands, which might wrest the island from its control, attempted to bring them under the regulation and authority of the crown. It was then too late. The people seemed to appreciate their strength. Dreading, therefore, that the same spirit which had nearly caused the loss of one jewel from the English crown, might deprive it of another, the ministers apparently acquiesced in a scheme, now beyond their power to defeat, and furnished the volunteers with arms. The nation were resolved to have redress; and, in calling the attention of the throne, the Irish parliament declared, that nothing short of a free trade could save the country from ruin. Scarcely two months elapsed, before the British legislature yielded to the demand; and, in three years from this period, the Irish parliament obtained its independence.

For his eminent services at this important era, Henry Grattan, then a member of the Irish house of commons, obtained from parliament fifty-thousand pounds, for the purchase of an estate; a return which he well deserved; but which has been proclaimed, by those who calculate according to the meanness of their own hearts, to have been the stimulant to his exertions.—Admirable reasoners! by what precedent, could the Irish orator have formed the most distant prospect of pecuniary reward?

1783. The affairs of Ireland continued to be highly interesting and important. Projects for a reform of the parliamentary representation, had been for some time warm-

ly entertained by the volunteers. In September, a meeting of delegates, from upwards of three-hundred companies in the province of Ulster, was held at Dungannon; at which, a plan of reform being arranged, it was resolved that a convention of representatives from the whole volunteer army, should assemble on the 10th of November, at Dublin. This meeting having taken place, Mr. Flood, on the following day, brought the topic before the house of commons, by moving for leave to bring in a bill for the more equal representation of the people in parliament. The motion, however, was received with much displeasure, as being a proposal tendered at the "point of the bayonet;" and was rejected by a large majority. An address to the king was next voted; in which, the lords concurred; expressing "the happiness enjoyed under his government, and their determination to support the present constitution with their lives and fortunes." The convention then agreed on a counter-address; beseeching, that their wish for remedying certain perversions in the parliamentary representation, might not be imputed to a spirit of innovation, but to an honest desire of upholding the constitution, and perpetuating the union of the two nations. This patriotic zeal was encouraged by a great change in the administration. Mr. Pitt, for many years a strenuous advocate of reform, was now, at the age of twenty-four, made prime minister of the British empire; and, from his influence, the friends of that cause had every thing to hope. In the ensuing spring, therefore, Mr. Flood again brought forward his bill, supported by a great number of petitions: but it was again rejected. Exasperated at this defeat, the citizens of Dublin held a meeting, at which another petition to the king, and a circular address to the people, were prepared. In the address, it was proposed, that five persons should be selected from every county, city, and considerable town, to meet in Dublin, as a "national congress." The very name of "congress" alarmed the government. Measures, therefore, were immediately taken to counteract the intentions of the people, by fining and imprisoning the most active of the magistrates who had called meetings throughout the kingdom; and by prosecuting the publishers of those newspapers in which the resolutions had been inserted. These means, however, were insufficient. The congress assembled in October, though in rather an incomplete form; passed a number of resolutions; earnestly recommended a future and more numerous meeting, and then adjourned.

There was another cause of discontent in Ireland, proceeding from the distresses of the manufacturing class. To so great a height, had these arisen, in Dublin, that a state of anarchy would have been the consequence, had not some public measures been adopted for their relief. A committee of the house of commons having been appointed to take into consideration the state of the manufacturers, a proposal was afterwards made, that protecting duties should be laid on all piece-goods imported into the kingdom. The rejection of this motion having caused a great ferment amongst the populace, at the next sitting of the house a mob broke in, and reproached the members with having "sold themselves to England." They were, however, dispersed by the guards, without bloodshed; and, fortunately, their rage gradually subsided, from the succeeding improvement of their trade.

1786. From the period at which we commenced our allusions to the state of Ireland, nothing very remarkable occurred, until the impeachment of Warren Hastings. Owing to the number of serious charges against him, for improper conduct in the East, his situation excited unusual attention. On no former occasion, was there so conspicuous a flow of eloquence. The most remarkable speakers were Sheridan and Burke. Indeed, the subject was particularly favourable to that kind of impassioned eloquence, which the orators of antiquity, when acting as public accusers, displayed; and, it was universally agreed, that never in the British senate, nor probably elsewhere, was a speech of this class delivered of equal force to that, by which Mr. Sheridan, during five hours and a half, riveted the attention of a full house, and an audience of distinguished visiters. Mr. Burke declared it to be the most astonishing effort of eloquence, argument, and wit, united, of which there was any record or tradition. Mr. Fox said, all that he had ever heard, all that he had ever read, when compared with it, dwindled into nothing, and vanished like vapour before the sun. Mr. Pitt acknowledged, that it far surpassed all the eloquence of ancient, or of modern times; and possessed every thing that genius or art could furnish, to agitate or control the human mind

The trial continued for seven years, but ended without producing the expected, and, we have no doubt, merited, conviction.

Amidst the preparations for that solemn arraignment, the public mind was arrested by another event; the death

of the Prussian monarch. Frederick, who has, of all modern princes the best deserved the title of Great, sunk under the rapid decline of an exhausted constitution, in the seventy-fifth year of his age. Chargeable as all the early part of his career may be, with despotism and rapacity, his latter years exhibited him as a mild and beneficent sovereign, devoted to the happiness and prosperity of his subjects; and a patriotic assertor of the rights of the Germanic body, of which he was the most illustrious member.

Amongst the remarkable domestic incidents, was an attempt on the king's life, by a woman; who, when presenting a paper to him as he was alighting from his chariot at the garden gate of St. James', made a stroke at his breast, with a concealed knife. The blow being happily avoided, the king, humanely, exclaimed, "I am not injured—take care of the woman—do not hurt her." On examination, she was found to be a poor creature, named Margaret Nicholson; whose reason was bewildered, by some idea which she had formed of her having a right to the crown

1788. The latter part of this year was made memorable by an occurrence more serious than the preceding, also affecting the person of the sovereign. We allude to his mental derangement. This affliction, which threw so deep a gloom over his later years, and by which he had been many years before, attacked, though slightly, rendered him, now, totally incapable of business; and, being unprecedented in English history, produced a general consternation, and occasioned extraordinary movements amongst the different parties. When parliament, which had adjourned, again assembled, it was proposed by Mr. Fox, that the royal functions should be immediately vested in the Prince of Wales: who, as heir apparent, he asserted, had an indisputable claim, as soon as the sovereign, from any cause, became incapable of acting. To this opinion, however, Mr. Pitt, who was not in so intimate a friendship with the prince as Mr. Fox, was far from acceding. He declared the doctrine to be little less than treason to the constitution. At length, an arrangement was concluded, placing the royal authority in the prince, under considerable restrictions; amongst which, the entire care of the royal person, and the appointment of the household officers, were assigned to the queen.

But, in Ireland, different measures were adopted. In that country, the easy manners of the prince had gained him almost universal affection. The people looked up to him as

their future benefactor. In the house of commons, an address, proposed by Mr. Conolly and Mr. Grattan; and, in the house of lords, one of similar import, introduced by the earl of Charlemont, requesting the prince to take upon himself, without any restriction, the executive power in Ireland, was carried by a large majority. When the deputies arrived in London, with this address, the prince of Wales returned his warmest thanks; but, at the same time, informed them of his hope, that his father would very shortly be able to resume the government.

These expectations were soon realized. In a few days afterwards, the king was perfectly recovered; having been ill about four months.

SECOND PART.

GREAT WAR WITH FRANCE.

THE affairs of France, at this period, having had so momentous an influence on the political concerns of England, in common with the impression made upon almost every nation of the earth, require unusual attention.

The French people had long been struggling to recover the small degree of legislative authority, wrested from them, nearly two centuries ago, by a rapacious monarch. Their first efforts were made in the reign of Louis the fifteenth. That prince having, in 1763, issued an edict for the continuance of some war taxes, and the imposition of others, the provincial parliaments refused their assent, and made a strong remonstrance against a proceeding so tyrannical. In consequence, the king sent officers into the several provinces, to register them by force; but the parliaments persisted in their opposition, and even issued orders for the apprehension of his agents. That monarch, equally detestable in his private and his public conduct, was succeeded by Louis the sixteenth; a prince, naturally inclined rather to indulge, than oppress, the people. But his good intentions were often frustrated by his family, and by the interested counsel of the neighbouring sovereigns. In that respect, the queen herself was considered highly culpable. The duke of Orleans, also, than whom the history of Europe scarcely affords a character more

infamous, served greatly to perplex his government. He has been charged even with hastening the downfal of his relative, that he might himself ascend upon his ruin.

Having thus given a sufficient sketch of the causes, we shall next trace the progress, of the revolution.

The disordered condition of the French finances, occasioned by the expenses of the late war and the extravagance of the court, had suggested an application to the body of the people, in the form of a convention of "notables," or principal persons in the different classes throughout the kingdom. This assembly met at Versailles; and was opened with great solemnity by the king, accompanied by the royal princes and the chief officers of state. But the proposed manner of raising the supplies, was far from being agreeable to the deputies, emboldened by the recent success of the American patriots. Very little business was transacted, and the meeting was dissolved.

In the mean time, the necessity of the government had caused a recurrence to the usual mode of levying money, by royal edicts; with which, the parliament of Paris refused to acquiesce; and the king having endeavoured to compel their registry, all the parliaments of France denounced penalties against those who should attempt to enforce their execution. The royal authority being now at stake, the king improperly retaliated, by banishing the Parisian delegates to Troyes. But the popular resentment constrained him to recall them. A compromise ensued, and the edicts were withdrawn. However, this apparent return of good understanding was of short duration. The government necessities becoming still more urgent, applications for supply were again made, and were again repulsed. The result was, the imprisonment, by a royal order, of two of the members; followed by a bold remonstrance against this act of power, and a demand, in the name of the laws, for their liberation; with which open assertion of the principles of free government, the year 1787 closed.

The new year was productive of still more serious contests. The crisis was rapidly approaching. The further tyranny of the court was met by increasing opposition from the people. All the royal ordinances were again suspended: the minister of finance resigned his uneasy post, and was succeeded by Necker, the celebrated banker of Geneva; who, at a former period, had held the office, and, more than any other man, possessed the confidence of the nation

At length, in 1789, the popular voice was entirely predominant in France. A large accession of number in the *tiers etat*, or third estate, having been gained, this body, now feeling their importance, and being joined by a few of the clergy, who belonged to a distinct assembly, declared themselves the legislative body, and assumed the title of National Assembly. The king, however, supported by the nobles, declared their proceedings null, and commanded them to separate. Violent tumults ensued: in some of which, the dangerous symptom of fallen authority appeared,—an attachment of the soldiery to the popular feeling; which induced the king and the nobles to acquiesce in the joint deliberation of the three orders.

Meanwhile, the court was collecting an army around Paris; and, on the 11th of July, Necker was suddenly dismissed, with an order to quit the kingdom in twenty-four hours. This event excited furious commotion. On the fourteenth, the citizens, aided by some of the military, stormed the state prison, (called the Bastile,) massacred the governor with several others, and carried their heads in triumph through the streets.

Necker was immediately recalled; several decrees were passed by the national assembly, abolishing ancient institutions; and a declaration of rights was agreed on, as the basis of a new constitution. This frame of government, assented to by Louis, was a limited monarchy; in which, the legislative authority was made superior to the executive, and the king was allowed only a suspensive veto. But the general distress created fresh insurrections. With much difficulty, the king and queen were saved from the fury of the mob by the marquis La Fayette, at the head of the national guards; which corps he then commanded. Important changes were again made by the assembly; amongst which, were, the abolition of all titles, the annulment of tithes, and the total dissolution of monastic establishments.

1791. These transactions created alarm amongst the continental sovereigns. The emperor of Germany wrote a letter to the unhappy Louis, deprecating the late decrees; and prepared to assist him in their revocation. An army of French emigrants, under the prince of Conde, was assembling on the German border; insurrections of the royal party were occurring in different provinces of France, and suspicions mutually increasing: the king, with

the queen, his sister, his brother, and the latter's wife, secretly left the palace, by a subterranean passage, and set off for the frontiers; leaving behind him a paper, in which he protested against all the decrees sanctioned by him while under a state of restraint, and recited the deprivations and indignities which he alleged he had undergone from the national assembly. But his journey was soon prevented. He and his party were stopped at Varennes, and brought back under an escort of national guards. His brother and sister, having taken a different route, reached Brussels in safety.

To enumerate the various negotiations which succeeded, would carry us beyond our limits. In September, the national assembly having unfortunately dissolved itself, affairs were thenceforth managed by legislative bodies, under various titles, much influenced by the famous Jacobin club; a society of about forty, who formed a kind of national assembly in miniature, and an instrument of the most violent faction.

1792. France and Austria were now at open war. Hostilities commenced with an attack on the Austrian Netherlands, by a large body of troops under general Rochambeau. Soon afterwards, it was announced, that the king of Prussia had marched above fifty-thousand men to co-operate with the emperor. Paris was filled with confusion and alarm: the legislative assembly declared that the country was in danger. The arrival at the capital, of the provincial volunteers, increased the general tendency to riot; and, in this inflammable state of the public mind, appeared the two celebrated declarations of the duke of Brunswick, commander in chief of the allied forces, dated at Coblentz, on his way to Paris. These were drawn up in a style of sanguinary menace; and espoused the cause of Louis and his ancient authority, in a manner which confirmed every suspicion of his consenting to the invasion. A dreadful scene ensued. The palace was attacked: the Swiss guards, the gentlemen ushers, the pages, and all who came in the way of the insurgents, were cut to pieces. The king and queen, with the rest of the royal family, having taken shelter in the hall of the assembly, which was then sitting, thus gained a respite from the fury of their enemies. The executive power was now suspended, and Louis and his queen were imprisoned in the Temple. In the next place, royalty was declared forever abolished in France, all

distinctions in society were overturned; and every thing which had graced and decorated polished life was abandoned with contempt.

With the turbulence, the energies, also, of the French nation, were increased. Dumorier and Kellerman were successful, not only in checking the advance of the duke of Brunswick, but in lowering his tone so completely, that he acknowledged the right of the people to make their own laws, desired nothing further than the admission of Louis into the government, however limited in power, and, before the end of October, evacuated the territories of France.

Having gone thus far in portraying this memorable scene of anarchy and bloodshed, we must turn to the effects produced in England.

In the house of commons, allusion having been made to the late revolution, which Mr. Fox mentioned in terms of approval, Mr. Burke rose, and delivered a severe and opprobrious censure, not only on its conductors, but on its principles. Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan defended the principles of the revolution, whilst they joined in detestation of the outrages by which it had been accompanied; but Mr. Pitt and several other members expressed their entire concurrence with Mr. Burke. Similar oppositions of sentiment spread rapidly through the empire; producing a spirit of hostility more acrimonious than that which had prevailed even during the colonial war. Every sect, and every rank, felt interested in the contest. The anniversary of the popular triumph in France having been celebrated in different places, Mr. Burke soon afterwards published his celebrated work, entitled, Reflections on the French Revolution; by which, he gave offence to all rational friends of political freedom. On this occasion, his most able antagonist was Thomas Paine; who brought forward his "Rights of Man," which greatly contributed to the spreading of democratical principles, and a bold spirit of reform. In the following year, the anniversary of the revolution was the cause of an alarming riot at Birmingham. The populace there, being averse to the cause of freedom, collected in a mob, and, uncontrolled by the magistrates, burned several meeting-houses, and the dwellings of the principal dissenters. The house, books, papers, and apparatus, of that eminent divine and philosopher, Dr. Priestley, were consumed; and he himself was compelled to become a fugitive, in order to preserve his life.

Ten years had elapsed, since the cause of the Roman Catholics particularly engaged the attention of the Irish parliament; since they took a serious review of those disabilities, which the passions and prejudices, perhaps the pressure, of an intemperate season, had entailed upon them An intimation from the throne invited them to resume that duty. The good offices which they owed to each other; the indulgence due to their fellow subjects, recommended by the unimpeachable conduct of a century; the consideration demanded by national prosperity; all, united, in again calling them to a revision of that subject, at a time when the public mind was becoming more enlightened, and prejudice and jealousy were every day yielding to confidence and affection. A bill, introduced by sir Hercules Langrishe which afterwards received the royal assent, happily removed the most grievous restrictions from that numerous and loyal body of their Irish brethren. By this, and a succeeding enactment, they were allowed the privilege of voting at parliamentary elections; serving on petit and grand juries; holding commissions of the peace, in counties; pleading at the bar, and rising to the rank of lieutenant colonel in the army. The honour of assisting in the national councils, with their emancipation from every restriction, would be attended with the highest benefit to the British empire.

But, whilst England was thus increasing the number of her friends at home, she was creating a formidable enemy abroad. On the deposition of the king of France, the British ambassador at Paris, lord Gower, had been recalled,
1793. and the French ambassador at London was no longer respected. Every thing, seemed tending towards more serious hostility. It is, indeed, difficult to say, which nation advanced with the greatest earnestness, to so dreadful an appeal. The indications of one government were met by the less ambiguous declarations of the other. A letter from the French minister of marine, addressed "to all friends of liberty in the seaports," contained the following appeal; which, with some others, was quoted by Mr. Pitt in the house of commons: "The king of England and his parliament mean to make war against us. Will the English republicans suffer it? Already, these freemen show their discontent, and their repugnance to bear arms against their brothers, the French. Well! we will fly to their succour: we will make a descent upon the island: we will lodge there fifty-thousand caps of liberty: we will plant there the

sacred tree, and will stretch out our arms to our republican brethren. Their tyrannical government shall soon be destroyed."

The execution of the unfortunate Louis took place on the twenty-first of January. When intelligence of that event reached England, the French ambassador was ordered to quit the kingdom; and this marked avowal of displeasure was followed, on the part of the new Republic, by a declaration of war; in which Holland, also, was included.

If we pause here for a moment, and view the immense load of debt with which Great Britain was already burthened, amounting to more than two-hundred-and-fifty-millions, we cannot refrain from commiserating her dangerous situation. The effect of the transition from a pacific to a hostile attitude, on nearly every branch of manufactures, was truly deplorable. The numerous dependents on large es tablishments, generally improvident, had made no provi sion against a sudden stagnation of their trade. As the parent can no longer support his children, or be secure from the horrors of a jail, in despair he rushes from their presence, and leaves them to their fate; or, with an aching heart, takes them as companions of his sorrow, and seeks a temporary living from the charity of strangers.

A French army, under Dumorier, assembled at Antwerp, for the purpose of attacking the Dutch. Breda and other places soon opened their gates. But, at Williamstadt, which commands the passage of an arm of the sea into Holland, he was driven back by the garrison, aided by a detachment of English guards and gun-boats. General Miranda invested Maestrecht, with a force of twenty-thousand men; and, after completing his works, summoned it to surrender. The prince of Hesse, however, its commandant, determined on a resolute defence. Clairfait, the Austrian general, having passed the Roer, repulsed the enemy in that quarter; and, soon afterwards, the archduke Albert captured some of their batteries. These affairs were followed by a complete victory, gained by the prince of Saxe-Cobourg over the French army, at Aix la Chapelle; from which, they were driven as far as Liege: and, on the same day, prince Frederick of Brunswick defeated a body at Bruges. Miranda was therefore compelled to raise the siege of Maestrecht, and hastily retreat.

The good fortune of Dumorier seemed to have deserted him. All the splendid conquests made by that active commander in the Austrian Netherlands, being, before the end

of March, recovered by the allies, he was obliged to retire upon his own frontier. Dumorier was a moderate republican, and invariably opposed Robespierre, Marat, and others of that ferocious party; who had used the name of liberty for accomplishing the most sanguinary barbarities in the annals of the world. He therefore formed a design of marching to Paris, to effect a counter-revolution. But, being suspected by the convention, he departed from his army, and took refuge with the Austrians. Dampiere was then appointed in his place. From his fortified camp at Famars, near Valenciennes, the French general made an impetuous attack on the allies, which ended in his defeat; he himself being mortally wounded. In this engagement, the British troops, under the duke of York, second son of the king of England, were highly distinguished. The camp of Famars afterwards yielded to the allies; by which means, Valenciennes being left uncovered, the siege of that place was intrusted to the duke; to whom, after it had been reduced almost to ashes by a bombardment, it surrendered. But that officer, shortly after, met a severe repulse Having commenced the siege of Dunkirk, the delay in receiving his heavy artillery, and the want of an early co-operation by a naval force, caused the loss of so much time, that the enemy were enabled to collect a powerful army for its defence, before any progress was made in its investment: the result of which was, that he was obliged to raise the siege, and leave behind him his battering cannon, with a large quantity of ammunition.

Toulon, in the south of France, became an interesting and melancholy object. The citizens, in conjunction with admiral Turgot, had given admiral Hood possession of the town and shipping; on condition that they should be returned to the French monarchy, whenever it should be re-established. But the appearance of a numerous republican army, soon made it necessary for the British to retire. A conflagration of the magazines, arsenals, and vessels in the harbour, followed, under the direction of sir Sidney Smith; on which occasion, fifteen ships of the line, several frigates, and an immense quantity of naval stores, were consumed

In the month of October, Marie Antoinette, widow of the unfortunate Louis, was taken to the scaffold. The guillotine streamed with the blood of many others; several of whom deserved a better fate. But the execution of the duke of Orleans, then known by the name of Egalite, (who had been so active in procuring the king's death,) was re

gretted by none. Very different was the feeling for Madame Roland, whose character was the object of general admiration.

The East and the West Indies had again a large share of military operations. However, no useful knowledge would be imparted, by our attending to them, in this early stage of the great contest. The domestic transactions are the next subject of importance.

In Scotland, a party zealous for reform had projected what they entitled, rather injudiciously, a national convention. This society having thereby attracted the notice of government, prosecutions were instituted against some of its leading members; upon an old Scottish statute, of very wide and dangerous application. In consequence, Mr. Muir and Mr. Palmer received sentence of transportation: which judgment, being the first instance of the imposition of that punishment, for such a crime, and pronounced against persons of respectable character, was regarded as unreasonably severe.

About this time, the British government became involved in those disputes with the United States of America, which, finally, were attended with so serious effects. Orders having been given, by the former, for stopping all vessels carrying corn or military stores, either to France, or to her colonies, more than six-hundred of the American shipping were consequently seized, within a period of five months. This violation of neutral rights, accompanied by the impressment of American seamen, was resented by an embargo on the British shipping; after which, Mr. Jay an ambassador from the United States, having arrived in London, the dispute was for the present adjusted.

The popular odium, which Mr. Pitt had already gained, by his precipitate breach with the French republic, was now increased by another measure, highly offensive to a nation entitled to the privileges of freemen. This was, the suspension of the habeas corpus act; as a counterpoise to the rapidly increasing spirit of reform. But, though he had thus succeeded in bringing over a majority in parliament to countenance his encroachments, he was entirely defeated in his next experiment. Indictments being found against several members of the reforming societies, Mr. Hardy was first tried; and, after an investigation of eight days continuance, in which the talents of his counsel, Mr. Erskine and Mr. Gibbs, were admirably displayed, he was acquitted. The trial of Horne Tooke ended in the

same manner; after which, the other prisoners were discharged.

We are again called to the grand theatre of war. The continent exhibited a spectacle no less interesting than awful; unparalleled in the previous history of Europe.

France, amid the ferocious contentions of successive factions; unaided by a single friend; assailed, on all sides, by the strongest energies of the surrounding kingdoms; preserved her territory uninjured. Austria, Prussia, and Holland; Great Britain, Sardinia, and Spain; seemed to wage against the republic an unequal contest. Their veteran troops, their long experienced commanders, now yielded to the soldiers of a day; led on by generals just emerged from the very lowest ranks. A degree of enthusiasm, bordering on madness, had infused amongst the undisciplined armies of France, an artificial courage, which nothing could resist. Before the end of autumn, the whole of Austrian Flanders and Brabant, with many of the strong towns on the Dutch frontiers, had fallen; and so disheartened were the Austrian and Prussian monarchs, that they would have made a hasty peace with their powerful antagonist, had it not been for the interposition of British gold.

But, on another element, the French experienced a reverse. At sea, they had to meet a foe, certainly not inferior in natural ardour, and far superior in skill and discipline.

1794. On the first of June, lord Howe, with twenty-five sail of the line, engaged the enemy's fleet of twenty-six, off the coast of Brittany. The French steadily awaited the attack; but, in less than an hour after the action became general, their commander, whose immediate opponent was Howe, in the Queen Charlotte, went off with crowded sails, followed by most of his van who were able to carry canvass Of those which were left crippled, seven ships were taken; the remainder having escaped, owing to the disabled or separated state of the English. The slaughter in the French fleet was very great. In the captured vessels, alone, the killed and wounded amounted to twelve-hundred. The total loss of the British was nine-hundred.

Early in the ensuing spring, Mr. Pitt brought forward a plan for the augmentation of the navy; requiring for that service ninety-thousand men. The regular land-forces amounted at this period to considerably more. So large a military establishment, with the expense of maintaining a majority in parliament, and subsidizing the continental sovereigns, required upwards of twenty-seven-millions for the

service of the year. With regard to the king of Prussia, it was observed by the opposition, that he had misapplied the assistance so largely given him; having directed it chiefly towards promoting his unjust designs against Poland: and as to Austria, that the conduct of the emperor did not then justify a much higher degree of confidence.

The conquest of Holland had become the great object with the French; an enterprise in which the power of Louis the fourteenth had failed. But the present state of the provinces rendered success more probable, than at any former time. Since the forced restoration of the Stadtholder, by the arms of Prussia, in 1787, disaffection to the house of Orange, and its supporters, was a prevailing sentiment amongst them; and, in several districts, open declaration had been made of their attachment to the French Republic, and their aversion to Great Britain. The principal difficulty which obstructed the French, was the crossing of the waters between Holland and Brabant; for, when attempting to pass on rafts, they were repulsed by the British and German troops. At length, owing to a frost, more intense than any experienced for several years, they were enabled to transport a numerous army, on the ice, over the Waal, and carry all the posts in the isle of Bommel. A gallant attack by eight-thousand British troops, under general Dundas, forced them to recross the river, with considerable loss But this was only a momentary check. Their numbers rendered them irresistible. Part of Pichegru's army made good their passage without opposition, and the British were forced to retreat; during which, until their arrival at Bremen, where they took shipping for England, their sufferings, from the weather, the pursuing enemy, and the inhospitality of the country through which they passed, exceeded almost any of the kind that have ever afforded matter for description. The French immediately took possession of Utrecht and Rotterdam. The Stadtholder, with his son, escaped with difficulty from the Hague to Scheveling; and, having embarked in an open boat, on the following day reached England. Pichegru, having received a formal invitation, entered Amsterdam on the 20th of January. The independence of the United Provinces was then declared, and the preceding constitution abolished.

This was soon followed by a peace between the French Republic and the king of Prussia. The treaty, which had been for some time progressing, was entirely in favour of the former; and gave her the satisfaction of being acknowl-

edged by a power which had stood foremost in the hostile confederacy. Spain, too, completely dispirited by the last campaign, found it necessary to sue for peace, and accept of such terms as she could obtain. She yielded all her part of Hispaniola, with its artillery and stores, acknowledged the French and Dutch republics, and undertook to use her influence in detaching Portugal from the alliance with Great Britain.

Although, since the downfal of Robespierre, Marat, and their atrocious confederates, the internal relations of France had been gradually improving, yet there still arose a considerable degree of inquietude, from the successive collision of the factions which remained. The fifth of October was a dreadful day at Paris. A conflict took place near the hall of the convention, between the citizens and the regular army; and ended in the total rout of the people, after a loss of about a thousand lives. On this occasion, Napoleon Buonaparte, a native of Corsica, distinguished himself as a commander, by his intrepid conduct. Tranquillity being restored, a new constitution was formed, and the convention, after a continuance of three years, resigned its authority. The executive power was now vested in five directors: Reubel, Latourneur, Barras, Sieyes, and Larevelliere Lepaux; who were installed with regal pomp, and, on public occasions, displayed all the appendages of sovereignty. The founding of the national institute, an establishment which revived and included all the former celebrated academies of science and polite literature, and the forming of central schools for the superior branches of education in each department, honourably testified the enlarged views of the new authorities.

The republic, however, with all its attention and energy, was still unable to meet the British on the ocean. A further reduction of its navy was made, by admiral Hotham and lord Bridport; by the one, off Genoa, and the other, off Port L'Orient. But an exploit of more importance than any during this year, was the capture of the Dutch colony, the Cape of Good Hope, by general Craig and admiral sir G. Keith Elphinstone; its governor having rejected a proposal, that it should be assigned to the protection of Great Britain.

Whatever consolation the minister derived from the invariable success of the navy, and the occasional triumphs of the army, there seemed no reasonable hope of eventually controlling the formidable power of France. The people were extremely desirous of peace But every motion in

parliament upon that subject had been rejected. A petition, therefore, to both houses, was voted in the Common Hall of London, by a large majority; and also in several towns throughout the kingdom. The ministry, and other advocates of war, became daily more unpopular, and the reforming societies acted with increasing boldness. One meeting, in the fields near Copenhagen House, was distinguished by the daring spirit of the addresses, made to at least fifty-thousand persons. In the autumn, when the king was proceeding through the Park to the house of lords, he was surrounded by a crowd of all ranks, who clamorously demanded peace, and the dismission of Mr. Pitt: one of the glasses of his coach was broken by a bullet, and on his return he was treated with much rudeness and indignity.

The attention of all Europe was now turned to Italy. That country, so frequently the theatre of hostile operations, became the chief ground on which the present belligerents contended. Buonaparte, being placed at the head of fifty-thousand troops, began, in the month of April, that rapid series of victories, which overthrew the proudest armies of Austria, removed from his ancient throne the father of the Roman church, crushed the power of every other sovereign beyond the Alps, and raised his military fame above the greatest generals of antiquity. The enemies of France will long remember Lodi, Mantua, Rivoli, and Marengo.

War was declared against Great Britain, by the Dutch, (the Batavian Republic) in May, and by the Spaniards in October.

The Dutch had already experienced the effects of their attachment to the French. In the East Indies, their settlements in Ceylon, with Malacca, Cochin, Chinsura, Amboyna, and Banda, were taken without resistance. In South America, they were deprived of Demerara and Essequibo, by general Whyte; and afterwards of Surinam by lord Hugh Seymour. But these were not their only losses. Admiral Elphinstone captured, at Saldanha Bay, several ships of the line and frigates, with two-thousand land forces on board.

1797. Early in this year, another splendid victory was gained by the British navy. In Spain, so much diligence had been exerted, that a large fleet was soon prepared, with the intention of joining the French squadron at Brest. It consisted of twenty-seven sail of the line; six of which mounted, each, one-hundred-and-twelve, and one was

even so powerful as one-hundred-and-thirty-six guns. The squadron destined to intercept this gigantic fleet, was composed of no more than fifteen ships of the line and some frigates, but had much better seamen than the Spaniards, and was commanded by admiral Jervis, an officer of first rate abilities, seconded by many of the most distinguished officers in the navy. On the 14th of February, the enemy were descried off Cape St. Vincent, on the coast of Portugal; and, before they had time to form, were attacked, and one-third of their number separated from the rest. An attempt to rejoin their ships was prevented by commodore Nelson; who, at one time, had singly to encounter their admiral and two other first rates; and the engagement ended in the capture of four of their vessels, and their return to Cadiz. Jervis was rewarded with the title of earl St. Vincent, and Nelson with the order of the Bath.

In the same month, the enemy sent over to the English coast an armament, not less singular in its materials, than unmeaning in its object. Fourteen-hundred men, who were embarked at Brest in four vessels, three of which were large frigates, entered the Bristol Channel, and anchored off Ilfracombe; but, when informed that a regiment of volunteers was prepared to oppose them, they stood over to Pembrokeshire, and landed in a bay near Fishguard. The alarm was immediately given; people assembled from all parts; more than three-thousand men, amongst whom were a body of militia, were soon collected; and to these, headed by lord Cawdor, they immediately surrendered. The astonishment of the captors may easily be imagined, when they found that the invaders were mostly in rags, with every appearance of having been taken out of prison.

Scarcely had the conversation excited by that mysterious affair subsided, when a cause of serious alarm was given in another quarter, and from a very different source. This proceeded from a mutiny which broke out in the navy at Portsmouth. Discontents had for some time existed; arising from the smallness of the seamen's pay, the unequal distribution of prize money, and the severity of discipline. However, by the timely intervention of parliament, by whom their grievances were redressed, order was happily restored. But these concessions, to which they were entitled, led the way to further demands, unreasonable and unjust. A more dangerous spirit of insubordination shortly afterwards appeared, amongst the fleet lying off the Nore. The head of this revolt was one Parker; a man of some ed-

ucation, and equally remarkable for activity and courage. He informed the admiralty, that the seamen had resolved to keep possession of the fleet, until they complied with their request. It therefore became necessary, when every remonstrance and an offer of pardon were ineffectual, to employ force for their reduction. Accordingly, the buoys at the mouth of the Thames were removed, batteries for throwing red-hot shot erected, and proclamations issued, forbidding all intercourse with them from the shore. One ship after another at length submitted; and Parker with his fellow delegates was seized. He and some of the latter were condemned and executed; after which, good order throughout the navy was completely restored.

An opportunity was soon afforded the British seamen to regain the confidence of their officers and the admiration of their country. Duncan, with sixteen ships of the line, having encountered, near Camperdown, a Dutch fleet of equal force, under Winter, captured eight of the line, two of fifty-six guns and two frigates; for which brilliant success, that gallant officer was advanced to the peerage.

On the continent, the superiority of the French arms was still increasing. The Austrians had been expelled from Italy; and, though another army entered that country, under the command of the archduke Charles, an officer brave, skilful, and active, they were unable to contend with the greater energies of Buonaparte, aided by numerous generals, scarcely inferior to himself in the art of war. Nor was it in Italy alone that the Imperialists were beaten. The French pushed their successes so far, that even Vienna was in danger; and thus compelled them to conclude a peace.

1798. The diminution of territory, suffered by the revolt of the American colonies, appeared to have been soon forgotten by the English government. Further and more serious warning was required, to make a permanent impression. A rebellion in Ireland now raised its awful voice, to declare the wrongs and disappointments of an oppressed and insulted people: oppressed by the continuance of unnecessary restrictions: insulted by the hope redress, no sooner given than withdrawn.

To form a just decision, as to the innocence or criminality of the Irish people, almost the whole effective population of the country, thus taking arms against a long established sovereignty, it will be necessary to make a retrograde movement in our history. We have already shown the effects of the American revolution, in producing a gen

eral spirit of resistance, and its influence in Ireland, by embodying the volunteers. Their first object had been gained: but much was yet to be accomplished. So early, therefore, as 1791, an association, with a view towards parliamentary reform, was established in Belfast; called the Society of United Irishmen: which consisted chiefly of protestant dissenters. Amongst these, lord Castlereagh, (then the honourable Robert Stewart,) was one of the most active members. To that succeeded a society in Dublin, having a similar object, with the addition of a test. Of this, James Napper Tandy was secretary, and Simon Butler chairman. Besides their immediate object of reform, these liberal patriots gave the most strenuous aid in gaining indulgence to the catholics; a body entitled to the highest degree of political confidence. The removal of several restraints which affected them has been already mentioned. For those acts, they were indebted, it is generally supposed, to the sole orders of the king: without whose desire, previously expressed to the minister, no motion in their favour would have been successful; as Mr. Pitt, notwithstanding his professions, was inimical to their emancipation; and the majority of the Irish parliament, were, on that subject, invariably governed by the ministerial nod.

The sudden recall, from the government of Ireland, of lord Fitzwilliam; a nobleman who had been selected, in the year 1795, for the avowed purpose of healing its dissensions, by reforming its representation and admitting the catholics to a full participation of constitutional privileges; was the cause of this rebellion. The king, possessing more virtue in the design, than steadiness in the execution, of his measures, was persuaded, by the insidious whisperings of pensioners and placemen, to withdraw his generous directions. Of these self-interested advisers, the late Mr. Beresford, who enjoyed a lucrative situation in the custom-house at Dublin, was the most distinguished. All hopes, either of emancipation or reform, were thus destroyed. Catholic and Protestant thence aimed only at one object; and, as redress had been denied them, that object was revolution. The various names which had previously marked the contending parties, became lost, in the two great divisions of United Irishmen on the one side, and Orangemen on the other; the latter consisting of the very meanest of the established church, led and infuriated by government dependents, under the once respected banners of Nassau, to cover the most atrocious persecution. For their cruelties, lord Cam-

den, the successor of Fitzwilliam, is responsible. He either encouraged them by his countenance, or suffered them to proceed by his neglect.

The management of the intended revolution was intrusted to a Directory. Its first members were, lord Edward Fitzgerald, brother to the patriotic duke of Leinster; Oliver Bond, a merchant of considerable eminence in Dublin; Counsellor Emmett; Arthur O'Connor, nephew of lord Longueville; and doctor M'Nevin; all of whom, except the last, were protestants. A correspondence was opened, and an invasion of Ireland arranged, with the government of France. This measure, however, had often been frustrated by the vigilance of the English admirals; and, when a large fleet had escaped from Brest, with a powerful armament on board, under general Hoche, it was so scattered by a storm, that only a part reached Ireland: and even these, after waiting a considerable time in Bantry Bay, for the general and the remainder of the fleet, sailed without landing their troops. An insurrection, unaided by the French, was not intended, in the beginning. But, the chief leaders having been imprisoned, and the people goaded to the last stage of desperation by the ministerial assistance of lord Castlereagh, that great political apostate, a rebellion was begun, without heads to direct, or officers to execute.

The insurgents first assembled on the 23d of May. On the following morning, they attacked the garrison of Naas, in the county of Kildare, fourteen miles from Dublin; from which, after a warm contest, they were repulsed. Simultaneous attempts were made at many other towns; particularly Carlow, Hacketstown, and Monasterevan; in general, with no better success. The insurrection then spread through several of the southern and northern counties, threatening a total dissolution of the government. Severe engagements occurred at Wexford, Vinegar Hill, and New Ross; Antrim, Saintfield, and Ballinahinch.

Happily for Ireland, the earl of Cambden was recalled, and lord Cornwallis deputed to restrain the fury of civil war. The system of moderation and mercy pursued by this nobleman, was attended with immediate effect. Military execution being repressed, and a general pardon offered, before the end of July the flames of rebellion were nearly extinguished. But, in the following month, an ill-timed expedition from France raised disturbance in the west. Eleven-hundred infantry, commanded by Humbert, seemed, for a while, to bid defiance to the whole military force

of Ireland. It must for ever remain a humiliating reflection on the power and lustre of the British arms, that so pitiful a detachment should have routed a select army of six-thousand men, marched one-hundred-and-fifty miles through the country, and maintained their superiority until surrounded by upwards of twenty-thousand troops. After an obstinate resistance, the gallant band surrendered to lord Cornwallis, at Ballinamuck. Historical justice, however, requires us to state, that, in a previous rencounter, a small party of the Limerick militia, under colonel Vereker, gave them a severe check; and that no blame can be attached to the common soldiers. Their discipline had been so much relaxed by the turbulent policy of a former commander in chief, lord Carhampton, that his successor, the correct soldier, sir Ralph Abercrombie, declared, "the army in Ireland was formidable to every one but the enemy."

It was fortunate for the government, that, as the land forces were so inefficient, the usual vigour and discipline continued in the navy. On the 12th of October, a squadron of one ship of the line and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition on board for Ireland, was arrested in its progress by sir John Borlase Warren, at Lough Swilly; where, after a smart engagement, the ship of the line and three frigates were captured; and, eventually, the whole of the squadron, with the exception of two frigates, was taken.

Thenceforward, the chief governor applied himself assiduously to retrieve the country from its devastation.

France being disengaged from her continental enemies, the invasion of England became more than ever the object of her rulers. It was the favourite theme of their public orators. The conquest of their only remaining foe was anticipated with all the boastful confidence of the nation. Troops were collected on the opposite coast, and named The Army of England: transports of every kind were prepared, and a loan was negotiated on the credit of the English spoils. These threats had a very injurious influence upon the funds, and upon the manufacturing class, already deprived of an extensive market, by the hostile situation of so large a portion of their ancient consumers.

But the enemy, whilst alarming the domestic empire of Great Britain, seemed to meditate a more distant blow. Her settlements in India being viewed with an eye of jealousy, it was attempted to reach them by the way of Egypt. For this purpose, a large fleet, carrying twenty-thousand

troops, sailed from Toulon. Accompanying them, were artists of all kinds, men of science in all its various departments, with every requisite for the establishment of a great colony; and the conduct of the whole was given to Buonaparte. In his passage, he made an easy conquest of Malta; an island considered as almost invulnerable. Egypt's being a province of the Turkish empire, then at peace with France, created no objection to the scheme. Having landed the troops, he took Alexandria by storm; gave the Beys a defeat, which rendered him master of Cairo; organized a temporary government, and then set out in pursuit of the fugitives, to Syria.

On the first of August, one month after the entry of the French, admiral Nelson discovered their fleet, anchored across Aboukir Bay, near the mouth of the Nile, consisting of thirteen ships of the line and four frigates; a number, superior to the English. Naval history does not record a more awful combat than that which followed. The conflagration of the French ship, L'Orient, ended in a dreadful explosion; in which, the admiral and his whole crew of more than one-thousand men, perished; the terrific grandeur of the scene being heightened by the gloom of night. Eleven sail of the line and two frigates testified the accustomed heroism of the British seamen and their great commander; who was loaded with honours of every kind: amongst which, was the appropriate title of Baron Nelson of the Nile.

Sir Sidney Smyth had already gained high reputation on his proper element, the sea. The advance of the French into Syria, gave him an opportunity of displaying his talents on land; by defeating Buonaparte, who, hitherto, had been successful in every undertaking. Intrusted with the defence of Acre, he compelled his antagonist to retire, after a series of desperate attacks, during a two months' siege

In the mean time, France was losing ground in Europe Russia, induced by the pecuniary aid of England, had joined Austria in another attempt to reduce her power; which new war had considerably impaired the credit of the republican arms, and her financial resources. In this state of things, France was surprised by the sudden appearance of Buonaparte from Egypt. The existing government was
1799. immediately dissolved, and the executive authority committed to three Consuls; of whom, Buonaparte was appointed chief, for a term of ten years.

He addressed a letter to the king of Great Britain, re-

questing him to enter on a negotiation for a general peace. But his desire did not meet a corresponding return. After some notes, passed between lord Grenville, secretary of state for foreign affairs, and M. Talleyrand, the French minister, the business terminated.

India next demands attention. Seven years had elapsed, since Tippoo Saib had ceded to lord Cornwallis half his dominions, to be held, by the British and their Eastern allies, as the penalty of his hostile operations; and, as security for his submission, delivered to the former his two eldest sons; an interesting pledge. Influenced by the French, he again gave indication of unfriendly movements, and thereby incurred the vengeance of his watchful enemy. At this time, the governor of British India was lord Mornington, (since entitled marquis Wellesley,) under whose directions, generals Harris and Stuart, with an immense army, marched to Seringapatam; which they carried by assault. In the attack, Tippoo himself was killed. His remaining territory was divided. The capital, with extensive districts, was assigned to the English: a large portion was given to the Nizam, and the rest to the ancient rajahs of Mysore, formerly dispossessed by Hyder Ally.

To the calamity of war, another, if possible more afflicting, was at this time added. Owing to unfavourable harvest weather, the price of corn, and every other article of food, had reached a height, in Great Britain and Ireland, unknown at any former period. Not only was it impossible for the labourer to earn the means of purchasing the humblest necessaries of life, but the utmost dread existed, lest there should not remain seed sufficient for the ensuing spring. However, by the humanity of those whom Providence had placed above the pressure of a season, and by a general system of rigid economy throughout every rank, the people outlived their heart-rending situation.

Benjamin Franklin, one of the greatest philosophers and tatesmen, either of ancient or modern times, died at Philadelphia, in 1790, in his eighty-fifth year.

No man ever excelled Franklin in familiarly illustrating an argument. He was once a member of a society, in which it was contended that every person who gave a vote for a member of the legislature, should possess a certain amount of property; at least fifty dollars. The doctor was opposed to the restriction.—"To-day," said he, "a man owns a jackass worth fifty dollars, and he is entitled to vote; but, before the next election, the jackass dies. The man, in the

mean time, has become more experienced: his knowledge of the principles of government, and his acquaintance with mankind, are more extensive, and he is therefore better qualified to make a proper selection of rulers:—but, the *jackass is dead*, and the *man cannot vote*. Now, gentlemen," he continued, "pray inform me, in whom is the right of suffrage,—in the *man*, or in the *ass?*"

General Washington died at his seat, Mount Vernon, in Virginia, on the fourteenth day of December, 1800, in the sixty-eighth year of his age. He was the first elected President of the United States; in which exalted office, his abilities as a statesman were equally conspicuous with his former conduct as a soldier.

THIRD PART.

Legislative Union with Ireland.—Peace of Amiens.

1801. ONE consequence resulting from the rebellion, was a legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland; long a favourite measure of administration. No subject ever met so strenuous opposition in the Irish parliament. Eloquence and intrigue failed to obtain a majority in its favour. But titles and emoluments were lavishly employed, and hushed the new-born patriotism of many, who, hitherto, had voted with the ministerial benches. It was resolved, that Great Britain and Ireland should, on the first day of January in the present year, be styled the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; that they should be represented by one parliament: that four spiritual lords, (bishops,) and twenty-eight temporal peers of Ireland, should sit in the house of lords; the former by rotation of sessions, the latter by election for life; and one-hundred representatives in the house of commons. The regal title also underwent a change; being divested of the frivolous assumption of "king of France;" which, for many ages, had been more a subject of ridicule, than a mark of dignity.

On the continent, the talents of the First Consul had again compelled the allies to conclude a peace. Each succeeding treaty increased the dominion and the influence of France. The "armed neutrality," re-organized under this control, now assumed a formidable aspect. It threatened to deprive Great Britain either of her arrogated dominion of the sea, or the benefits arising from her commerce with

the Baltic. Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Prussia, were leagued against her maritime encroachment. To defeat this compact, lord Nelson made an attack on the Danish fleet and batteries at Copenhagen; and, after one of the most dreadful engagements ever witnessed, burned, sunk, or captured, the entire fleet, and constrained the prince royal to sign an armistice. This was the termination of hostilities, in that quarter. The Russian emperor, Paul, whose actions had long denoted insanity, became intolerable to his subjects, and being found dead in his bedchamber, was succeeded by his son, Alexander; who was mediately declared for the political system of his grandmother, Catherine the second.

Though, by his hasty departure from Egypt, Buonaparte had incurred the charge of desertion, he escaped the mortification of defeat. England was not an idle spectator of the French progress to the East. Eighteen-thousand men, under sir Ralph Abercrombie, Hutchinson, and other experienced generals, were sent into Egypt, to check that ambitious march. At no former period, were the valour and discipline of the British army so conspicuous. The finest of the enemy's regiments were there literally trampled under foot; and in a short time the whole of their remaining forces agreed to evacuate the country. This service, however, was not performed without considerable loss, aggravated by a mortal wound received at Alexandria by the venerable commander; who thus ended a long series of brilliant achievements: and the infection of ophthalmia, a disorder, prevalent in the sandy regions, by which blindness was spread through the British ranks, was a melancholy addition to the usual miseries of war.

An exhilarating event soon afterwards occurred in England. In the course of our history, it may have been frequently remarked, that a change of ministry is the harbinger of peace. The tone of decided hostility, which Mr. Pitt and several of his official colleagues had maintained against the government of France, rendered the formation of another cabinet necessary, to insure success in the intended negotiation. Accordingly, they retired; and Mr. Addington, speaker of the house of commons, was placed at the head of the new administration.

The avowed cause of resignation was, that the king, referring to his coronation oath, had refused to acquiesce in their wishes for catholic indulgence; a declaration which must be received with considerable doubt.

1802 On the 27th of March, a definitive treaty, between the French Republic, Spain, and the Batavian Republic, on the one part, and Great Britain on the other, was signed at Amiens. By its conditions, the latter restored to the three powers all its conquests during the war; with the exception of Trinidad and Ceylon, respectively ceded by Spain and Batavia. Malta, which the British had retaken from the French, was returned to the order of St John of Jerusalem; under many stipulations, guaranteed by the great powers of Europe.

Peace is at all times desirable by England. But it must have been particularly welcome, at this time; when her annual expenditure had arrived at thirty-five-millions, and her national debt at five-hundred-millions sterling: a sum so vast, that it cannot be contemplated by the human mind.

FOURTH PART.

Renewal of the War.

THE peace of Amiens gave the French Republic an opportunity of turning its arms against the negroes of St. Domingo; who, having, in the early stage of the revolution, shaken off the bonds of slavery, were now, under Christophe and Tuissaint, rapidly establishing their independence. Nor were the British West India colonies free from insurrection. Considerable bloodshed was committed in many of these, by the same unhappy race, whom avarice has doomed to unremitting toil and unrelenting cruelty.

Only a short time, however, could be exclusively devoted to their reduction. The same pen which communicated the intelligence of peace, is now employed in announcing a renewal of war.

In October, the king of Spain annexed to the royal domains all the property of the knights of Malta in his dominions, and declared himself, there, grand-master of the order. This step, which created a new obstacle to the treaty of Amiens, in addition to others which had before occurred, was supposed to have been taken at the suggestion of the French. Early in March, a royal message was

1803. sent to parliament, which was regarded as an immediate prelude to hostilities. It mentioned, that great preparations were going forward in the ports of France and Holland; which though professedly directed to colonial

service, yet, as discussions of uncertain issue were subsisting between the British and French governments, rendered it expedient to increase the means of national security. A corresponding address was unanimously voted, and a resolution passed for an augmentation of ten-thousand seamen. Parliament having adjourned during the Easter recess, some weeks passed in a state of awful suspense. After its re-assembling, his majesty informed both houses, that he had given orders to lord Whitworth, his ambassador in France, that, if he could not, on a certain day, conclude the negotiations, he should immediately leave Paris; and that, in case of such an event, general Andreossi, the French ambassador at London, had applied for his passport to return.

On the part of France, the chief subjects of complaint were, the delay of the British troops in evacuating Malta and Alexandria, and the rancorous abuse of the first consul in the English newspapers. These were dwelt on with considerable warmth at a levee, in a conversation between Buonaparte and lord Whitworth; when, the ambassador, feeling indignant at the menacing gestures of the consul, placed his hand upon his sword.

Great Britain complained of severity and injustice practised towards her merchants, immediately after the late peace; of an army being kept in Holland, contrary to the remonstrances of the Batavian government; the violation of the independence of Switzerland; the annexation of other territories to the French dominions; the conduct of France and Spain towards the knights of Malta; and hostile indications against Turkey. But, perhaps the greatest incentive to hostility, was a bravado, made by the first consul and his ministers, that "Great Britain could not singly contend with the power of France."

On the 17th of May, war was declared against the French; and, in the following month, against the Batavian republic.

Whilst measures were taking for supporting these hasty declarations, an insurrection broke out in Ireland. The promoter of this was Robert Emmett. He was a brother of Counsellor Emmett, who has been, for many years, one of the chief ornaments of the American bar; son of Dr. Emmett, who once filled the office of state physician; and formerly a distinguished student of Trinity College, at Dublin. The centre of this plot was the capital. On the evening of the 23d of July, about five-hundred of the very lowest classes, mostly armed with pikes, assembled; intending, in

the first place, to attack the castle. The probability of success in such an undertaking, with such materials, in a city garrisoned by upwards of five-thousand regular troops, may easily be conjectured. Proceeding, however, through Thomas-street, lord Kilwarden, one of the principal judges, and his nephew Mr. Wolfe, unfortunately fell in their way were dragged from their carriage, and massacred. Some of the yeomanry, when returning from parade, shared a similar fate; all, unquestionably, without the concurrence of Mr. Emmett. In less than an hour, these infatuated people were imprisoned or dispersed. Their leader, and nearly twenty others of the party, were tried, and, after patient and impartial investigations, condemned and executed. The fate of Mr. Emmett was particularly lamented; though, even his friends could not acquit him, for having thus disturbed the peace of the country, whilst there existed no rational hope of gaining the desired end.

Fortunately, that humane and respectable nobleman, lord Hardwicke, at that time presided over the Irish counsels, and checked the habitual malignity of those who then urged the necessity of suspending the trial by jury.

1804. The first occurrence in this year, essential to be noticed, was the resignation of Mr. Addington, and the resumption of his office by Mr. Pitt. In the new ministerial list appeared the name of lord Castlereagh, as president of the board of control.

Intelligence being received, that some vessels, with treasure, from the South American mines, were expected at Cadiz, the Indefatigable and three more frigates were despatched, to intercept them. Four Spanish ships, of the same class, being discovered steering for that port, the English frigates took a situation, each along-side of an antagonist; and a shot was fired, to make them bring to. A close engagement commenced; and, within ten minutes, La Mercedes, the Spanish admiral's second, blew up, with a tremendous explosion. All on board perished, except forty, who were saved by the English boats. The others, after considerable loss, struck their colours, in succession. It was a peculiarly afflicting circumstance, that, in the vessel which exploded, were the whole family of a South American, consisting of his lady, four daughters and five sons; with the exception of one of the latter, who, with his father, had gone into another, and were thus spectators of the dreadful catastrophe. The lading of the captured vessels was of immense value; the destination of which for the

service of France, was the reason assigned for this act of piracy, so much censured, both at home and abroad.

Shortly afterwards, the court of Spain commenced hostilities.

Buonaparte had risen too high, to be contented with the smallest inferiority. Title was yet wanting, to fill the present measure of his ambition. This was easily obtained. The senate, from his own suggestions, requested that he would consent to become Emperor: addresses to the same effect followed from the army and the municipal bodies; and a motion in the tribunate, that he should be made Emperor of the French, with hereditary succession, passed, with only one dissentient voice; that of Carnot; who delivered his sentiments with great force and freedom. The title of prince and princess, was respectively conferred on all the branches of the Buonaparte family; Napoleon and his empress, Josephine, were crowned at Paris, by the pope; and, in the following year, the new emperor placed the regal crown of Italy upon his head, at Milan.

Soon afterwards, Francis the second, emperor of Germany, whose crown was previously elective, assumed the additional title of hereditary emperor of Austria.

In the mean time, serious discussions occurred, between the emperor of Russia and the government of France. Alexander remonstrated warmly against the usurping spirit of the latter, and insisted that the French troops should evacuate the kingdom of Naples and the north of Germany.

1805. But France remained firm in her determination. A new league was therefore formed; by which, Russia and Austria joined with England, for the purpose of securing the independence of the different states. But Napoleon resolved to strike a decisive blow against his Austrian antagonist, before his troops could be joined by those of Russia. Accordingly, he entered his territory at the head of one-hundred-and-fifty-thousand men, accompanied by marshals Bernadotte, Marmont, Davoust, Soult, Ney, and Lasnes, and took possession of Vienna; which, Francis with his court had abandoned, on his approach. In two days afterwards, Napoleon set out to join a division which was advancing to meet the Russians; and, without loss of time, came in contact with the allies at Austerlitz. Here, was fought the memorable battle, in which were present the three emperors, of Austria, Russia, and France. This sanguinary action ended in the defeat of the allies, with the loss of the greater part of their artillery and baggage; and

compelled Francis to submit to an armistice: by the terms of which, the victor was to retain all his conquests, until the signing of a definitive peace.

Whilst the French were thus pursuing a victorious career on land, their ambitious ruler experienced the defeat of his hopes in gaining a superiority at sea. This element still witnessed the almost unvaried triumphs of the British. Off Cape Trafalgar, near the southern point of Andalusia, the combined fleets of France and Spain, amounting to thirty-three sail of the line, were totally overthrown by Nelson, with twenty-seven. This great officer had laid a plan of attack, a master-piece of naval skill. Having given the memorable signal, "England expects every man to do his duty," he bore down in a double column. The enemy, on his approach, extended their line in the form of a crescent. But, though the victory which followed deprived them of twenty-four sail of the line, the British suffered a much heavier loss, in the death of their commander. His country justly appreciated his services. The honours paid, by a grateful and admiring nation, to the memory of Nelson, were never surpassed, in any age. In the same degree that they condemned the authors of the danger, they applauded the heroes by whom it was repelled.

An anecdote is told, of one of the crew of a British vessel engaged in that decisive battle, which is strikingly characteristic of a brave seaman. A limb having been carried off by a cannon-ball, when some of his comrades were bearing him on their shoulders, to the surgeon's room, below, he called out to one of his messmates—"I say, Jim, give a look about the deck, for my leg: you'll find a brass buckle in the shoe; take care of it for me, that's a good fellow: I'll do as much for you again."

About this time, lord Cornwallis, who had been appointed successor to marquis Wellesley, died, at an advanced age, in India.

1806. The death of those two prominent characters was followed by that of Mr. Pitt. In the preceding summer, having sensibly felt the decline of a constitution, originally delicate, and long severely injured by care, fatigue, and the misfortunes of the allies, he retired to Bath, with very faint hopes of recovery. On the 23d of January, he expired, in the forty-seventh year of his age. This minister has been styled, by his own party, "The pilot who weathered the storm;" but, though we grant that he was a statesman of considerable talent, it was he who raised the gale—

the people, who triumphantly survived it. He only assessed the taxes—the people had the merit of paying them.

Lord Hawkesbury having declined the offer of becoming his successor, a total change was made in the administration. Lord Grenville became first lord of the treasury; earl Spencer, Mr. Fox, and Mr. Windham, secretaries of state; lord Erskine, (the late commoner,) lord chancellor. Important offices were also assigned to lords Fitzwilliam Moira, Sidmouth, and Howick, (Addington and Grey.) The duke of Bedford was made lord lieutenant of Ireland; and, in that kingdom, George Ponsonby was made lord chancellor, Curran, the celebrated orator, master of the rolls.

One of the first measures brought forward by the new cabinet, was an alteration in the military system; particularly in the mode of recruiting the army. By this excellent arrangement, instead of being, as before, engaged for life, the soldiers are now enlisted for a term of years, with privileges augmented in proportion to the length of service; commencing with seven, and concluding with twenty-one years.

That was an act of policy mingled with humanity. The abolition of the slave-trade, which succeeded, was one of humanity required by justice. More than twenty years had passed, since Mr. Wilberforce commenced his annual appeal to parliament, in behalf of the long oppressed African. In that period, much had been done to lessen his sufferings during the passage from his native shore; and this total abolition of a nefarious traffic would have been voted much sooner, but for the interference of commercial interest, in the sea-ports.

In about a year after this, a similar non-importation commenced in the United States of America.

Meanwhile, a splendid achievement was performed by the British army, in Calabria. Near Maida, sir John Stuart, with a force of less than five-thousand, defeated seven-thousand French infantry, under Regnier. This affair, which caused the expulsion of the enemy from that quarter, was decided on a plain, by the bayonet.

A horrid proposal of assassinating the French emperor, having been intimated, by a foreigner, to Mr. Fox, this excellent man, with his characteristic generosity, disclosed the infamous plot, in a letter to M. Talleyrand; and, at the same time, expressed a desire to treat of peace. But a difficulty arose. The British cabinet refused to act separately

from Russia, and, after much negotiation, the treaty was abandoned.

Every day increased the political influence of Napoleon Having first succeeded in overawing all the inferior sovereigns of Germany, and forming an alliance, named the Confederation of the Rhine, of which he himself was the head, he compelled Francis to relinquish the office of chief of the Germanic body, and yield the precedence to France, and used a similar tone of authority to the king of Prussia Roused, however, from his long continued lethargy, Frederick engaged single handed against Napoleon. But, this spirit, which, at one period, might have preserved his dignity, now hastened his degradation. The victory of Jena gave his enemy possession of Berlin; and the subsequent operations, in which the Russians, too, were almost invariably defeated, enabled him to dictate his own terms in the treaty of Tilsit. By this, the temporising Frederick lost a large territory, Alexander acknowledged the confederation of the Rhine, and Joseph, Louis, and Jerome, Buonaparte, as kings of Naples, Holland, and Westphalia. It is said, that a request, made by the queen of Prussia, induced Napoleon to relinquish a considerable part of his acquisitions. When at dinner, on removing the napkin from her plate, the concession was found, thus laconically expressed: "Silesia."

"When I was at Tilsit," relates Napoleon, "with the emperor Alexander and the king of Prussia, *I was the most ignorant of the three, in military affairs.* These two sovereigns, especially the king of Prussia, were completely at home, as to the number of buttons there ought to be in front of a jacket, how many behind, and the manner in which the skirts ought to be cut. No tailor in the army knew better than king Frederic, how many measures of cloth it took to make a jacket. In fact, I was nobody, in comparison with them. They continually tormented me with questions about matters belonging to tailors, of which I was entirely ignorant; though, in order not to affront them, I answered just as gravely as if the fate of an army depended upon the cut of a jacket. When I went to see the king of Prussia instead of a library, I found he had a large room, like an arsenal, furnished with shelves and pegs, in which were placed fifty or sixty jackets of various modes. Every day he changed his fashion, and put on a different one. He was a tall, dry looking fellow, and would give a good idea of Don Quixote. He attached more importance to the cut

of a dragoon or a hussar uniform, than was necessary for the salvation of a kingdom. At Jena, his army performed the finest and most showy manœuvres possible,—but I soon put a stop to their *coglionerie*, and taught them, that to fight, and to execute dazzling manœuvres and wear splendid uniforms, were different affairs. If the French army had been commanded by a tailor, the king of Prussia would certainly have gained the day; from his superior knowledge of clothing; but as victories depend more upon the skill of the general commanding the troops, than upon that of the tailor who makes their jackets, he consequently failed."*

During those momentous transactions, the British admirals made several captures. Sir Home Popham, with a body of troops under general Beresford, after assisting in the reduction of the Cape of Good Hope, ventured, without any authority from home, to carry his whole naval force to South America. In the beginning of June, he entered the river Plata, and soon afterwards the general took possession of Buenos Ayres. Here, they found a considerable treasure. But, being attacked by Liniers, a French colonel in the Spanish service, the British troops, after a sanguinary contest, surrendered themselves prisoners of war. The succeeding operations, in that quarter, it is unnecessary to detail. We shall only mention, that, in the following year, sir S. Auchmuty stormed Montevideo on the same river; that, in a few months afterwards, general Whitelock made an unskilful attack on Buenos Ayres, which ended in the destruction of a great part of his brave soldiers, and the evacuation of the country by the whole of the British army.

Whitelock, on his return, was, by the sentence of a court martial, cashiered, and declared totally unworthy to serve his majesty, in any capacity whatever.

Within a very short period, we have recorded the death of three conspicuous public characters. The great political opponent of Mr. Pitt was carried off, on the 7th of September, in his 58th year, by a dropsy. Though the loss of Mr. Fox was a severe blow to the administration, yet it produced no change worthy of notice; except the substitution of lord Howick, as secretary in the foreign department, and the admission into the cabinet of the deceased statesman's relative, lord Holland.

* Voice from St. Helena, Vol. II.

1807. Early in the spring, lord Howick made a motion in the house of commons, which caused a dissolution of the ministry. He proposed, that catholics, in Great Britain, should be entitled to the same privilege of serving and advancing in the army, that was possessed by those of the same religion in Ireland. But this indulgence having been represented to the king as impolitic, the conversations which arose on the subject, between his majesty and the cabinet, made it necessary to form a new administration. The duke of Portland was placed at the head of the treasury, lords Hawkesbury and Castlereagh, with Mr. Canning, were made secretaries of state, and Mr. Perceval was appointed chancellor of the exchequer. · Lords Eldon and Manners succeeded Erskine and Ponsonby; and the new chief governor of Ireland was the duke of Richmond.

Even the Ottoman court was now under French influence. The Dardanelles and the Bosphorus were closed against English and Russian vessels. In consequence, a fleet was sent under the command of sir J. Duckworth with orders to force a passage; and, if certain terms were not arranged, to bombard Constantinople. Having passed the outer castles, and done considerable damage to the Turkish fleet and batteries, the English admiral anchored within eight miles of the city, and commenced a negotiation. But his proposals were rejected. Formidable preparations were made on shore, and a nearer approach to the city was impracticable. Wherefore, he retreated, and repassed the castles; which assailed him with vast marble shot; one of which, weighing eight-hundred pounds, cut in two the mainmast of the Windsor.

That defeat gave less uneasiness to the nation, than a succeeding victory. Fearing that the influence of Napoleon would turn the naval power of Denmark against England, the ministry despatched to Copenhagen an immense fleet; which, after enveloping that capital in flames, carried off her entire navy and military stores. This flagrant act clearly evinced the sentiments of the British ministry; who thus maintained the barbarous principle, that a measure, though morally wrong, may be politically right.

But, even in a political view, it was erroneous. In avoiding an uncertain, they raised an immediate, enemy. The emperor of Russia prohibited all intercourse with the aggressors, and restored the armed neutrality.

When Napoleon had accomplished his present designs in the north, he directed his ambition towards another

quarter. Portugal and Spain became the objects of attack. Having entered the former, he obliged the court to seek refuge in Brazil. In Spain, he seemed still more successful. Through the perfidy of the queen, and her favourite, Godoy, (styled the Prince of Peace,) and the weakness of her husband, Charles the fourth, he conveyed that monarch, with his son Ferdinand, to the interior of France, and
1808. obtained possession of the throne. The Spanish crown was then given to Joseph Buonaparte; and that of Naples, which, by his removal, became vacant, to Murat, brother-in-law of Napoleon.

As soon as this usurpation became known, an explosion of indignant patriotism burst forth amongst the people, from one extremity of Spain to the other. To give a regular organization to the popular efforts, provincial "juntas" were established. Of these, the supreme junta at Seville took the lead, proclaimed Charles's son, Ferdinand the seventh, declared war against France, and solicited the friendship and aid of England. Never was any foreign interest adopted with more ardour and unanimity. Peace with Spain was ordered on the 5th of July: the Spanish prisoners were liberated, clothed, and sent to join their countrymen.

In Portugal, a similar spirit of resistance was evinced, and British aid requested. Sir Arthur Wellesley, having landed at Mondego Bay, directed his march towards Lisbon, then occupied by the French, and after defeating a corps under La Borde, at Roleia, encountered Junot, at Vamiera; over whom, he gained a splendid victory, which obliged the enemy to consent to a total evacuation of Portugal.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, (a younger brother of the marquis Wellesley,) who now began his career on the Peninsula, by delivering Portugal from so dangerous an enemy, had previously distinguished himself in arms, particularly at Assye, in India. He was born in Ireland, at Dangan Castle, in the county of Meath. His father, the late lord Mornington, had placed him, at an early period of life, in that profession which enabled him to perform achievements so important to Europe, and so glorious to himself.

A charge made, during Mr. Pitt's administration, by Mr Whitbread, against lord Melville, paymaster of the navy, and his secretary, Mr. Trotter, had produced their degradation. There was, at this time, brought before parliament, a subject of much greater, and more extraordinary,

interest. Colonel Wardle, after mentioning a system of corruption which had long prevailed in the military department, directly charged the commander-in-chief, the duke of York, with having suffered himself to be swayed by a mistress, named Clarke; who had carried on a traffic in commissions. He asserted, that Mrs. Clarke possessed the power of military promotion; and that she received pecuniary consideration, of which the commander-in-chief was a partaker. During the proceedings in this remarkable case, which occupied the greater part of two months, and drew fuller houses than were almost ever known, long and minute examinations took place, of persons of both sexes; several of whom were of a description rarely seen at the bar of a legislative assembly; and gave answers, (especially the female most concerned,) which often more contributed to the entertainment, than corresponded with the dignity, of that body. That Mrs. C. had received sums of money for obtaining promotions, clearly appeared; but, the proof of the duke's participation depended chiefly on the credibility of that female herself. As he was defended by the ministry, he was exculpated by a majority, of two-hundred-and-thirty-five, to one-hundred-and-twelve. His situation, the official duties of which he certainly performed much to the general advantage of the army, he had in the mean time resigned.

When this investigation was concluded, a vast armament was prepared in the English harbours. Its principal object was to gain possession of the islands commanding the entrance of the Scheldt, and destroy the French ships of war in that river; with the dock yards and arsenals; on which, great labour had been expended, as an essential part of Napoleon's project of contending, on equal terms, with the navy of England. The command of this expedition was given to lord Chatham; a general by profession, brother of the late Mr. Pitt. The event accorded with this injudicious, or rather criminal, selection, of an inexperienced leader; and too fully justified the anticipations of an indignant public. Never was an enterprise so extensively fatal to a British army, and so disgraceful to its projectors. When, by the commander's inaction, the opportunity of employing his forces had been lost, the ill-fated soldiery were left in the pestiferous marshes of Walcheren, without tents to cover, or medicine to relieve, until half the land-forces were either buried or expiring.

By a very surprising occurrence, Sweden, which, dur-

ing this war, had generally been favourable to England, at length assumed a hostile attitude. Marshal Bernadotte prince of Ponte Corvo, was chosen Crown Prince, and thereby became successor to the throne of that kingdom; affording an example, unprecedented, in modern history, of an ancient monarchy rejecting every branch of its royal line, and choosing for its future sovereign a soldier of fortune; a stranger, of humble origin, known to the nation only by his residence in the north of Germany, as an officer of Napoleon. Immediately, the Swedish court issued a decree of non-intercourse with Great Britain, and declared its adherence to the "continental system," which excluded every article of British manufacture.

FIFTH PART.

REGENCY.

Continuation of the War—Peace of Paris.

THE latter part of this year was marked by the recurrence of a domestic calamity, producing a change in the executive, which forms an era in the present reign. The king, in consequence, it was supposed, of deep affliction, from the sufferings of his youngest daughter, the princess Amelia, which terminated in her death, was attacked by the mental malady under which he had before laboured. It therefore became necessary to appoint a Regent; and, on the 5th of February, that important office was assigned, by parliament, to the prince of Wales.

1811.

A second enumeration of the inhabitants of Great Britain was now completed. This exhibited a population of twelve-millions-five-hundred-thousand; and an increase of above one-million-and-a-half, in ten years. The census was ordered to be made in Ireland; but it was not very accurately taken. Its inhabitants, however, may be estimated then, at five-millions.

The annual expenditure of the empire, including interest on the public debt, was, at this period, upwards of sixty-millions sterling.

Contrary to general expectation, the early friends of the Prince, amongst whom those able and upright Irishmen, lord Moira and Mr. Sheridan, held a distinguished place,

were not treated with that degree of political confidence, expected by themselves and desired by the people. The administration proceeded unchanged, until deprived of its leader by a most tragical and extraordinary event. As Mr. Perceval was entering the lobby of the house of commons, a person named Bellingham, fired a pistol at him; the ball from which pierced his heart. He staggered, fell, and in a short time expired. It was soon discovered that the act was in revenge of a supposed injury Bellingham, having, in a commercial visit to Russia, undergone losses, for which he thought the British government were bound to procure him redress, their refusal to take any cognizance of his case made such an impression on his mind, that he resolved to sacrifice a conspicuous member. The assassin suffered death for a deed of atrocity, which would have been a national stain, had it not evidently resulted from a degree of mental distemperature.

1812.

Since we last alluded to Napoleon, he inflicted additional humiliation on the house of Austria. Francis had again tried the fortune of the field, and had again been conquered. The battle of Wagram, in which the archduke Charles and Napoleon contended with more than three-hundred-thousand men and twelve-hundred pieces of artillery, having ended in the total overthrow of the Austrians, obliged them to conclude a disadvantageous peace. This gave the victor, and the assisting members of the Rhenish Confederacy, a large portion of the Austrian dominions, constrained the unhappy Francis not only to acquiesce in all his ambitious projects, but, by a secret article of the treaty, to deliver, to his enemy, a beloved and affectionate child. In conformity with this stipulation, Josephine, who had given no heir to Napoleon, was divorced, and her place supplied by Maria Louisa; the interesting sacrifice of an unworthy parent.

But, on the Peninsula, the French arms were opposed with determined heroism. In Spain, their victories in one quarter, were followed, in another, by defeat. There, they were opposed, not by the cold calculations of political expediency, but by the ardent feelings of an insulted nation. The ablest marshals of France, assisted by the national desertion of an enervated nobility, though they might have ultimately destroyed, had as yet failed to intimidate, the people. The disastrous retreat of the gallant Moore, upon Corunna, where he ended his misfortunes, and his remaining army purchased their embarkation by the sword, was but a temporary check to the British arms. The long series of

success which followed the cautious intrepidity of Wellesley, (now lord Wellington,) aided by such officers as Hope, Beresford, and Graham; Hill, Sterrett, and Picton; obliged the new sovereign to evacuate his capital, with slender hopes of a return. The victories of Talavera, Buzaco, Fuentes d'Honor, Ciudad Rodrigo, Badajoz, and Salamanca, were gained, in person, by lord Wellington. The battle of Albuera was won by Beresford; that of Baroso, by Graham: Arroyo del Molino, by Hill; and Sterrett, claimed the honours of Tariffa. The commanders who opposed the British, Spanish, and Portuguese combined armies were Joseph Buonaparte, and Soult; Victor, Junot, Kellerman, Sebastiani, Ney, Mortier, Suchet, Massena, and Marmont. But, only the most remarkable conflicts are here recorded. Nor, is any notice taken of the numerous engagements fought exclusively by the Spaniards, under their own officers.

Whilst these operations promised to wrest the Spanish sceptre from the grasp of violence, the continued success of the British navy, and of the land-forces on colonial duty, had annihilated Napoleon's transmarine dominion. He had not now remaining a foot of land in either of the Indies, nor a ship on the Indian ocean. Some consolation, however, in these disappointments, was derived, from the birth of a son; who, even in his cradle, was advanced to the regal dignity, as king of Rome.

As he was unable to preserve the ancient colonies in Asia or America, Napoleon seemed anxious to gain an equivalent in Europe. This equivalent was Russia. Alexander's refusal to concur in his favourite scheme of excluding the British commerce from the whole European continent, he regarded as a sufficient cause for marching against that country, with all the disposable force of his own territories, or those under his influence. The mass of military power thus collected, surpassed, probably in numerical amount, certainly in discipline, any with which a European conqueror had taken the field, since the ages of barbarism; and was undoubtedly designed to greater changes, than mere commercial regulation.

The first movement connected with Napoleon's plan, was the occupation of Swedish Pomerania. Twenty-thousand French troops were stationed there, as a pledge for the conduct of Sweden in the ensuing contest. Early in the spring, the grand army began its march towards Poland; and on its way was joined by a body of Prussians. The emperor,

Alexander, prepared to meet the storm, by quitting his capital, and advancing to Wilna; where, he met Barclay de Tolly, commander-in-chief of his first army. On the 16th of May, Napoleon, accompanied by his empress, reached Dresden; at which place, they were to hold an interview with the emperor and empress of Austria.

At length, the invading army, commanded by the French emperor, advanced in nine divisions; composing a total so much superior to the Russians, that a defensive plan, only, could be recommended by the cabinet of Petersburgh. This was, to retreat gradually, and make a stand in favourable positions. When the determination was taken, the danger became still more imminent. Austria sent her stipulated number of troops to act with the French, already strengthened by the sudden junction of the Poles. The first great stand was made at Smolensko; from which, after a sanguinary effort, the Russians retreated. Moscow being now the great object of contest, a strong position was taken at Borodina. Here, an obstinate combat took place, and each side claimed the victory; yet, whilst Te Deum was singing at Petersburgh, the French, with only a little skirmishing, entered Moscow. So far, Napoleon seemed victorious. Russia seemed united to his empire. But, whilst its fate was trembling in the balance, the scale was quickly turned against the invader, by an unexpected enemy—an awful conflagration. To deprive the French of a place for winter quarters, the governor of Moscow caused the city to be set on fire, in many places; which occasioned a destruction, so extensive, that, within a few days, not more than a tenth of the buildings remained unconsumed. No shelter could be found amongst the ruins. On the 19th of October, Napoleon left that scene of desolation. His retreating army were closely pressed by an exasperated foe; and, what was still worse, by a Russian winter. Half buried in snow, stiffened by the frost, their sufferings were extreme, their losses of every kind, prodigious. Horses died in so great numbers, that nearly all their artillery were abandoned, and almost the entire of their cavalry, dismounted. Whole bodies of men, disabled by cold and hunger, surrendered without resistance. Every thing wore the appearance of disaster and dismay. When the army reached Wilna, Napoleon proceeded rapidly to Paris; where, such was the impression of his former achievements, his re-appearance was attended with all the accustomed demonstrations of reverence and attachment.

His total losses, by capture, up to the 26th of December, were stated, in the Russian accounts, at thirteen-hundred-and-thirty-nine officers, (amongst whom forty-one were generals,) one-hundred-and-sixty-seven-thousand non-commissioned officers and privates, and eleven-hundred-and-thirty-one pieces of cannon!

1813. The king of Prussia now assumed the part of a mediator between the belligerent parties. But, his proposals for a truce, having met with small attention, he took the decisive step of forming an alliance with Alexander; and in a few months they were joined by Austria.

The French senate having placed at Napoleon's disposal three-hundred-and-fifty-thousand men, he caused the empress to be declared regent during his intended absence, and in the middle of April departed for the army. Besides the imperial guards, his forces were divided into twelve corps. The viceroy of Italy (Beauharnois) was appointed second in command, and Berthier chief of the staff. The several divisions were headed by marshals and generals long known in the service, and no traces appeared of the Russian disasters.

Passing over many serious conflicts, sometimes in favour of the French, at other times in favour of the allies, followed by an abortive negotiation, we shall attend to the greater operations which succeeded. Hostilities recommenced at Dresden; where the allies were defeated, with considerable loss. The next important contest was at Leipsic; for the decision of which, a larger force was assembled, than had, perhaps, ever acted, on so confined a theatre. The first general attack by the allies, made to the south of the town, after much slaughter, left the opposite armies nearly in their former position. Two days afterwards, another attack was made, on the town itself. In this conflict, the French lost seventeen battalions of German auxiliaries, by desertion, and forty thousand men in killed, wounded, and prisoners. Next day, the 18th of October, Leipsic was taken by assault; about two hours before which, Napoleon had escaped. The king of Saxony, with all his court, upwards of fifty-thousand French troops, and their magazines, artillery, and stores, were taken in the city. In a few weeks afterwards, fifty-thousand more surrendered; making a total loss, on the side of the French, within a month, of one-hundred-and-forty-thousand men; and, within a year, adding their losses in the retreat from Moscow, and in Spain, of four-hundred-thousand.

Meanwhile, the victories of Wellington, particularly at Vittoria and St. Sebastian, had enabled him to drive the enemy before him, and gain a firm footing in France. On
1814 the 12th of March, a detachment, commanded by marshal Beresford, occupied Bordeaux; where, the mayor and principal inhabitants assumed the white cockade, and declared for the Bourbons.

Notwithstanding the immense losses of Napoleon, which enabled his northern pursuers, also, to enter France, the result was for some time extremely doubtful. However, before the end of February, they arrived in sight of Paris. On the 30th of March, Joseph Buonaparte, assisted by marshals Marmont and Mortier, took a position on the heights near the city, in a long line; the centre of which was protected by several redoubts, and one-hundred-and-fifty pieces of cannon. An attack being commenced, by the two princes of Wurtemberg, the French, after an obstinate resistance, were defeated. Paris then capitulated; and on the following day was entered by the allied sovereigns, with their guards; the most exact order being every where preserved.

On the first of April, the French senate assembled, and formed a provisional government; at the head of which, was Talleyrand, prince of Benevento. On the following day, they pronounced, that Napoleon Buonaparte had violated his compact with the people, that he had forfeited the throne, and that the hereditary right established in his family was abolished.

Whilst these great events were transacting, Napoleon, learning the danger impending over his capital, moved his army from Troyes to Sens; and, arriving at Fromont at the time of the last battle, would have reached Paris on the same day, had it not been in possession of the allies. He then retired to Fontainbleau; from which, on the 4th of April, he sent a deputation to the senate, offering to abdicate in favour of his son.

A treaty between the allied powers and Buonaparte was signed at Paris; by the articles of which, in return for his renunciation of the crowns of France and Italy, he and Maria Louisa were to retain the imperial title for life; he was to hold the isle of Elba, in full sovereignty, whilst he lived; and the empress was to have the dutchies of Parma, Guestalla, and Placentia, with succession to her son. To this treaty, however, the British ministry refused their concurrence, further than respected the assignment of Elba and the Italian dutchies.

When the fallen emperor was on his way to his little insular dominion, the Bourbon sovereign, now recognised as Louis the eighteenth, left his retirement in England, and made his solemn entry into Paris.

The general peace, between France, and the allied powers of Austria, Russia, Great Britain, and Prussia, was signed at Paris on the 13th of May. The principal acquisitions retained by Great Britain, were, Malta, Tobago, St. Lucia, and the Isle of France. In a distinct article between France and Great Britain, Louis engaged to join his efforts with the latter, for procuring the total abolition of the slave trade, by all the Christian powers; and to abolish it with regard to France at the end of five years. In August, an arrangement was concluded with the prince of Orange, then restored in Holland, as king of the Netherlands; by which, Great Britain retained the Cape of Good Hope, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice.

Thus, peace was happily restored in Europe. But America was still suffering the calamities of war. Great Britain and the United States were in the midst of a sanguinary contest.

SIXTH PART.

PEACE OF GHENT.

THE various decrees of the two great European belligerents, intended to retaliate distress, had been carried to a degree so destructive and humiliating, that neutral rights were no longer regarded. Acquiescence or submission, on the part of those affected, was alike impolitic. That was commercial ruin: this, national dishonour. The Embargo, and other defensive experiments, in the United States, under the administration of Mr. Jefferson, and the serious negotiations under his successor, Mr. Madison, had served more to inflame than conciliate. It is not entirely agreed, which of the rival powers was the most unjustifiable aggressor. The offended power, however, had a right of choosing her antagonist. On the 18th of June, 1812, the Congress passed an act, declaring the "actual existence of war between the United States and Great Britain."

An attack on Canada was the first grand object of the American government. Operations against it commenced in July. General Hull entered the upper province, and is-

sued a proclamation to the Canadians, in a style expressing confidence of success. But his campaign ended in disgrace —not to his soldiers, but himself. Having proceeded to Fort Malden, he was foiled in his attempts to invest it; and, when the British general Brock, had collected a force for its relief, he retired to Fort Detroit; which he surrendered, with twenty-five-hundred men, before he gave them an opportunity of contending. There ensued in that quarter many severe engagements; in some of which the Americans displayed considerable bravery, and evident improvement in discipline. On Lake Erie, the American commodore, Perry, gained a complete victory over captain Barclay; and, on Lake Champlain, M'Donough was equally successful against an English squadron commanded by captain Downie.

On the Atlantic, the British found in the American frigates an enemy more vigorous than any that they had ever encountered. The loss of a few vessels of the same description, considered in the ordinary way, was of no importance. But the cause of that loss was unusually interesting. If it proceeded, as the English seamen declare, from an effective superiority on the side of the enemy's ships engaged, (a point too delicate for our discussion,) much blame attaches to the Admiralty, in subjecting their vessels to surprise. To say more on this subject, is not required. It would be improper, and superfluous: improper, as tending to animosity; superfluous, as the bravery of either nation cannot for a moment be contested.

The attack on Washington must always be a subject of deep regret. The destruction of the public buildings, in a city rendered venerable by so illustrious a name, might well accord with the previous barbarities of Cockburn, but formed a lamented contrast to the Peninsular achievements of the gallant Ross. Even in revenge for asserted injuries received in Canada, the measure was impolitic. The most glorious retaliation, on a reflecting enemy, is forbearance.

In the following month, (Sept. 12,) admiral sir A. Cochrane and General Ross made an attack on Baltimore. The fleet commenced a tremendous bombardment against Fort M'Henry: the army landed at North Point, about eight miles below the city. But the utmost efforts of the fleet were unable to make the least impression on the fort: and the purpose of the attack by land was abandoned; either from the loss of the commander, or the expectation of a spirited resistance, near the city. As the van-guard was

engaged with the American riflemen, general Ross received a mortal wound, in the breast. Sending for colonel Brooke, the second in command, he gave him some instructions, recommended his young children to the protection of his country, and exclaiming, "My dear wife," expired

The war with the United States being extremely unpopular in the British empire, injurious to her commerce and manufactures, and, since the continental pacification, easily concluded, proposals of peace were made, in a letter from lord Castlereagh, and accepted by the American President. The commissioners at Ghent having, after a long negotiation, come to an agreement, a treaty of peace and amity was signed on the 24th of December; which was afterwards ratified by both governments. The articles of this treaty related chiefly to the disputes respecting boundaries; for the determination of which it was agreed that commissioners should reciprocally be appointed. Both parties covenanted to persevere in their efforts for the abolition of the slave-trade, but no notice was taken of the circumstances which had occasioned the war.*

This year was rendered memorable by a concourse of illustrious visiters to the English capital; in number and rank surpassing any modern example; at the head of whom were the emperor of Russia and his sister, and the king of Prussia with his two sons.

The administration had now leisure to contemplate the situation of the country; which, even the return of peace had not restored to internal happiness, or commercial prosperity. The sudden change, from hostile to pacific relations, produced, in every class, a degree of pecuniary distress, unequalled even at the commencement of the war. —The annual expenditure exceeded seventy-five-millions: the funded debt of the nation, eight-hundred-millions sterling.—The navy comprised above one-thousand vessels; of which, more than one-hundred were of the line, and above three-hundred were frigates.

* The most important military event that occurred between the belligerents, after the signing of the treaty, was an abortive attack on New Orleans. In this, (on the 8th of January, 1815,) the British loss amounted to at least two-thousand, in killed, wounded, and prisoners: amongst the slain were general Packenham, the commander, and general Gibbs. The Americans were commanded by general Jackson; and displayed extraordinary coolness, and uncommon accuracy of fire.

SEVENTH PART.

REASCENSION AND SECOND DETHRONEMENT OF NAPOLEON.

1815. FAMILIES who had been disjoined by a war of more than twenty years, awaited, with delightful anticipation, a re-union. The soldier who had exchanged the bloom of youth for the silvery hairs of age, hastened to view the country of his birth, and enjoy a long continued peace. But, the field which had been abandoned, was yet to be regained. The banners, which necessity had furled, were again raised, when opposition was withdrawn. The meteor, which had illumined by its splendor, and amazed by its rapidity, was not extinguished. Napoleon emerged from his political eclipse, and made another revolution.

The terms on which Louis had ascended the throne of France, he did not faithfully observe. Questions had been debated in the legislative chambers, particularly those relative to emigrants' property and the freedom of the press, which, though carried, there, in favour of the court, were determined on other principles, by the nation. Nor, was the idea of being ruled by a dynasty, restored by foreign arms, the least revolting to their feelings; nor, the army as contented to remain inactive under an imbecile monarch, as desirous to aid a venerated chieftain in retrieving their military honour. Napoleon was not unapprized of the general wish. On the 26th of February, under the shade of evening, he left Elba, in a sloop of war, with 1100 men, chiefly of his old guard; and, on the 1st of March, landed in the small port of Juan. On the 7th, after meeting a trifling resistance near Antibes, he was joined by the garrison at Grenoble, and on the 9th, by the troops at Lyons. When he reached Auxerre, he was strengthened by marshal Ney, with 12,000 men. This step was decisive. All confidence in the army being lost, the king and royal family left Paris on the 19th; which was entered, on the following day, by Napoleon, without having had occasion to fire a musket.

But, it was not to be expected, that those powers which had united in dethroning him, would acquiesce in this resumption. In the same month, Austria, Russia, Great Britain, and Prussia, determined, each, to keep in the field 150,000 men, until he should be again expelled.

From the commencement of the alarm, troops had been unremittingly sent from England, into Belgium; to reinforce the British garrisons already there: and the duke of Wellington had arrived as commander of these, and of the auxiliaries in that country. The principal French army was, at this time, posted at Avesnes, in Flanders. Buonaparte, after promising a free constitution to the French people, left Paris on the 12th of June. He determined to attack the British and Prussian armies, whilst the Austrians and Russians were yet too distant to afford them succour. On the 15th, he drove in the Prussian posts upon the Sambre; and the next day, defeated their chief, marshal Blucher, on the heights between Brie and Sombref. In the mean time, lord Wellington had directed his whole army to advance on Quatre Bras; where, the first division, under general Picton, had arrived; followed by a corps under the command of the duke of Brunswick, and by the troops of Nassau. It was the duke of Wellington's desire, to afford assistance to Blucher; but, he was, himself, attacked, by a large body of cavalry and infantry, with a powerful artillery, under marshal Ney, before his own cavalry had arrived. A warm action ensued. The repeated charges of the French were steadily repulsed: yet, considerable loss was suffered, including the duke of Brunswick.

Blucher retreated, during the night, to Wavre; and lord Wellington made a corresponding movement to Waterloo; his left communicating slightly with the Prussians.

Napoleon was now entering his fiftieth battle; in forty-nine of which, he had been victorious. But, in none of these had he encountered Wellington. The meeting must have been full of solicitude to both. On the morning of the 18th of June, he assembled his whole force, nearly equal, in number, to his enemy, consisting of 70,000 veterans, and 240 cannon, upon a range of heights opposite to the British army; with the exception of one division, under marshal Grouchy; which had been detached to observe, and prevent the junction of the Prussians. At ten o'clock, Napoleon began the action, by a furious attack on Hougomont; which was renewed, by different efforts, during the entire day; but resisted with so much firmness, that the position was effectually maintained. At the same time, he kept up a heavy cannonade against the whole British line; and made repeated charges on several other points, which were uniformly repulsed, except at the farm-house of La Haye Sainte. Late in the evening, a desperate effort was made

near that place, against the left of the centre. This produced a severe contest. For a time, it appeared dubious, whether the resistance would be effectual. But the English were at length relieved. A distant cannonade was heard The Prussians appeared, and the right flank of the enemy retreated. Wellington seized the moment, and advanced his whole line of infantry, supported by cavalry and artillery. The French were soon forced from every position and fled in the utmost confusion; leaving on the field of battle 150 pieces of cannon, with their ammunition. They were followed by the victors, until long after dark; when, the pursuit was continued by the Prussians. Nothing could be more complete than the discomfiture of Napoleon's army; of which, the remains, consisting of about 40,000, partly without arms, and carrying with them no more than twenty-seven pieces of artillery, made their retreat through Charleroi.

This, was the issue of the battle of Waterloo. But, such a victory, over so brave an enemy, could not be cheaply purchased. In no action, of the previous war, had so many British officers been slain. Two generals, Picton and Ponsonby, besides four colonels, were killed; nine generals and five colonels were wounded; and, the total number, killed and wounded, of the British and Hanoverians, was above 12,000.

Finding that all was lost, Napoleon hastened back to Paris; and, assembling his council, requested to be made dictator. This desire being, however, resisted by La Fayette, and other leading members of the legislature, Buonaparte, perceiving that he was no longer the object of public confidence, issued a declaration; in which, "offering himself a sacrifice to the hatred of the enemies of France," he proclaimed his son emperor, by the title of Napoleon the second. The nomination of his son was not so readily accepted, as the abdication of himself; and commissioners repaired to the allied armies, with proposals of peace. The victors, however, would treat only under the walls of Paris. They accordingly advanced; and entered that city, after considerable opposition from the adjoining heights, followed by a capitulation, on the 3d of July.

Thus, was the capital of France a second time in possession of the allies.

Buonaparte was, in the mean time occupied with the care of his own safety; endeavouring to gain a sea-port, and embark for the United States. Accompanied by a

general, he arrived at Rochfort. The place, however, being closely watched by English cruisers, after some attempts to elude their vigilance, he determined to throw himself on British protection. On the 15th of July, he went, with his suite and baggage, on board the Bellerophon man of war, captain Maitland. Upon intelligence of this event reaching the allied sovereigns, it was determined that he should be carried, as a state prisoner, to St. Helena; a British island in the southern Atlantic: there, to be retained, under the strictest guard, within specified limits for recreation. Accordingly, the Bellerophon sailed for Torbay; where, the dangerous captive, with a few of his most attached adherents, was transferred to the Northumberland, captain sir George Cockburn; who conveyed him to his destined abode.

At this time, fell also Murat, a brother-in-law of Napoleon. He had been suffered to remain as king of Naples; the only individual that was allowed to continue as sovereign, except Bernadotte, now on the throne of Sweden, of all the friends who had risen with his elevation. Being defeated by the Austrians, and taken prisoner, by his own subjects, in Calabria, he was condemned by a military commission, and shot. Lucien, Jerome, and Louis Buonaparte, are settled in different parts of the European continent, and Joseph resides in the United States.

A portion of the great naval strength of England, was in the following year employed in a most beneficial duty The barbarians who occupy the immense northern coast of Africa, were compelled to abandon their inhuman piracies. The United States had nobly caused them to respect her vessels: Britain was now called on to achieve, for the other civilized nations, what they were unable to accomplish for themselves. The Barbary corsairs seldom or never molested British ships or subjects: since the first treaty made with the barbarians, in the reign of Charles the second, no English vessel had been captured by their public ships of war, nor had any English subject been made a slave. But the forbearance was, in some measure, purchased. Great Britain had been paying them a disgraceful tribute. This, however, the existing spirit of the age required should be discontinued, and the practice of sea-plunder and enslaving relinquished, as regarded every nation of the world. Lord Exmouth (admiral Pellew) was accordingly despatched with a fleet, to Tunis and Tripoli; at which places, he was completely successful: a treaty was signed, without a battle

But, the dey of Algiers was more powerful. He would agree only to a part of the proposed terms. The admiral, therefore, returned to England, and sailed with a more commanding force: in all, seven ships of the line and a proportional accompaniment of frigates and gun-boats; supported by a fleet of the Netherlands, under admiral Capellan. Exmouth entered the bay of Algiers on the 27th of August; and, having anchored within fifty yards of the mole, in front of their tremendous batteries, mounted with cannon of unusual size, and defended by 50,000 men, continued, with uninterrupted fury, for nearly three hours, so destructive a storm of shells and bullets, that their contiguous works were entirely ruined, and 7000 of the garrison killed or wounded. The dey was completely humbled. The loss of the brave assailants was, however, lamentably great No squadron, had been, at any time, exposed in so awful a situation But, the consequences of the victory were more cheering, than its effects to be lamented. The dey immediately restored to liberty above a thousand captives, refunded all the money which he had previously received for ransoms, bound the state to relinquish piracy for ever, and the practice of condemning prisoners to slavery. Thus, was accomplished, an achievement, in attempting which, the emperor, Charles the fifth, had lost 150 vessels, and expended the lives of 30,000 men; which had, three several times, in the reign of the first James, baffled even the English navy; and again, a numerous fleet under admiral Du Quesne; when, the dey committed the atrocious act of binding the French consul to the mouth of a mortar, and firing him off amongst the bombarding squadron.

Britain had acquired a large share of military glory, by these signal triumphs: but her internal situation soon afterwards became alarming. Her taxation is enormous; the difficulty of employing her population, was greater, then, than it had ever been known before. Dissatisfaction to the government was annually increasing. The meetings, under the influence of such leaders as Hunt and Watson, Thistlewood and Wooler, caused serious alarm, even to patriots of established reputation: but, the conduct of the armed yeomanry, who assailed, with deplorable effect, a vast assemblage of both sexes at Manchester, has branded, with everlasting infamy, not only themselves, but the sanguinary magistrates, by whose orders the murders were committed.

The princess Charlotte, only daughter of the regent,

and presumptive heiress of the crown, who had been married to prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, died, in her twenty-second year, universally lamented. The queen, having reached her 75th year, died in November, 1818.

The king, who had continued since 1811 as only a nominal sovereign, was insensible to every occurrence. His bodily health was unimpaired, but his intellectual malady had been long confirmed. Corporeal weakness at length be-
1820 came visible: he rapidly declined; and, on the 29th of January, expired at Windsor, in the 82d year of his age, and 60th of his reign.

The king's fourth son, the duke of Kent, died only a few days before his father.

Besides five daughters, and the prince of Wales, who has succeeded him, under the title of George the fourth, the deceased monarch left five other sons; the dukes of York and Clarence, Cumberland, Sussex, and Cambridge; the first of whom is now presumptive heir to the crown.

That long protracted warfare, was unable to repress the growing spirit of national improvement. Every species of literature, science, and manufacture, was cultivated with unceasing ingenuity. Even those manufactures, invented and assiduously cherished on the continent, have almost invariably admitted of refinement in Great Britain. France has been an exceedingly prolific inventor; as an inventor, perhaps unrivalled; but she must yield to England the character of completing and finishing, with permanent elegance, what she had previously commenced.

As a scientific manufacturer, Wedgewood has displayed most admirable research, in the article of porcelain. This sumptuous production was first brought from China and Japan, and received its English appellation, (probably through the French,) from the Portuguese *porcellana*, which signifies a cup. The illustrious Reaumur, the first who attended to its manufacture, as a science, published his discoveries in France, at the beginning of the last century; but, before that period, it had been brought, in that country, to considerable perfection.

No branch of industry ever had more powerful influence, in extending the commerce, congregating the inhabitants, and, at the same time, corrupting the morals, and increasing the misery of the British, than the Cotton Manufacture. It seems to have reached its highest point of excellence. The most ancient mode of spinning, that we can discover, was by the distaff, an emblem in the Heathen mythology.

From the distaff, the material was drawn by the revolution of a ball, held underneath; which twisted and received the thread. We next perceive the addition of a frame; in which, the spindle was supported, and set in motion by a band that encompassed a wheel, and received an occasional impulse from the hand; forming the domestic machine used in spinning wool. To this, followed the common linen-wheel; invented in Germany in the year 1530; which possesses the advantage of a flyer, and a uniformly steady motion from the action of the foot. At length, in 1767, James Hargrave, of Blackburn, in Lancashire, constructed a machine, by which a great number of threads can be spun at once. This, called the Jenny, is the best that has hitherto appeared for making very coarse weft. About the same time, cylinder carding was introduced; an invention claimed by many individuals. The next improvement was derived from a clockmaker of Bolton. But the fruits of his ingenuity were reaped by another; a person named Richard Arkwright, who was knighted for the invention. Arkwright followed the business of a village tonsor; and, during his morning visits to the mechanic, was enabled, by the loquacity characteristic of that profession, to become master of the secret. We here allude to what is called the Warp-spinning-frame, distinguished by the addition of rollers. The latest modification, which is perhaps the most important, certainly the most ingenious, received the name of Mule; by its combining the principles of the Jenny and the Warp machine. From this, can be produced a thread equal in fineness to the most delicate of India. The first cotton mill erected in England was by Arkwright and Hargrave, at Nottingham; in Scotland, by Peter Brotherston, at Pennecuic, near Edinburgh. In Ireland, the first twist machinery was made at Greencastle, under the direction, and for the use of, Nicholas Grimshaw; and the first cotton mill erected (in 1784) at Whitehouse, near Belfast, by the latter, in conjunction with Nathaniel Wilson. Several of these improvements have been successfully applied to the spinning of flax and wool. The printing of calicoes held a simultaneous progress, in point of extent; and in regard to brilliancy and variety of colour, went hand-in-hand with chemistry, its parent science.

Berthollet, a French chemist, has enabled us to curtail the time formerly used in bleaching linen and cotton fabrics. The oxygenated muriatic acid, first applied by him to that purpose, will produce as much effect in a few days,

as the old method of atmospherical exposure, in as many weeks.

The Steam-Engine next demands our notice. The first account of this great invention, is in a book published by the marquis of Worcester, in 1663; with which nobleman, it unquestionably originated. From that period, it has received many improvements. Its present high state of excellence, indeed its application to any purpose, with a due degree of economy and effect, is owing to the chemical and mechanical knowledge of Mr. Watt, a pupil of Dr. Black. He commenced his experiments upon the steam-engine in 1763, about the time when this great chemist promulgated his discovery of latent heat. The greatest mechanical project that ever engaged the attention of man, was on the point of being executed by this machine. The States of Holland were treating with Bolton and Watt for draining the Haerlem Meer, and even reducing the Zuyder-Zee, until prevented by their revolution.

Francis Egerton, duke of Bridgewater, is celebrated as the person who began, in England, the cutting of navigable canals with locks. Assisted by Brindley, a man of astonishing powers of mind, but without the polish of education, having surveyed his estate at Worsley, he obtained an act of parliament, authorizing him to open a communication between Manchester and Worsley, and return over the river Irwell, to Manchester. Though a solid rock opposed their progress, the opulence of the one and genius of the other overcame every obstacle. Air funnels were made through the hill, to discharge the noxious air from below; and this great canal was conveyed, not only more than a mile under ground, but over an arch forty feet above the surface of the Irwell: so that whilst vessels pass through the dark subterranean cavity, others sail on the canal above. Thus, the coals of the duke's estate were carried to the neighbouring towns, and the commerce of Liverpool was united by the Mersey, to Manchester.

The year 1782 is remarkable for having produced the first effective Air-Balloon. Stephen and John Montgolfier, of France, were the successful experimentalists, after many suggestions and trials, by various persons, during more than a century. Bishop Wilkins, in 1762, undoubtedly gave the first hint. His idea was pursued by Cavendish; by whom, the specific gravity of inflammable air was ascertained, and communicated to Doctor Black. The same thought afterwards occurred to Cavallo; who has the hon-

our of making the first practical experiment; though he proceeded no farther than blowing up soap-bubbles with hydrogen gas. The Montgolfier Balloon, however, was distended by rarefied air, formed by burning straw and wool; not by the hydrogen gas; that having been adopted afterwards. Lunardi ascended from London, in 1784: Blanchard and Dr. Jefferies made a voyage in a balloon, from Dover to Calais, in the year following. In the late revolutionary war, the French established an Ærostatic Institute; from which, issued skilful æronauts, for the use of the armies. Coutel ascended in 1794, accompanied by an adjutant and a general; and conducted the wonderful and important service of reconnoitring the enemy's manœuvres at the battle of Fleurus. He remained, at each of two periods, four hours in the air; and, by means of signals, carried on a correspondence with Jourdan, the commander of the French army. The experiment, however, had nearly proved fatal. His intended ascent had been made known to the enemy; who, at the moment the balloon began to take its flight, opened the fire of a battery against it. The first volley was directed too low; but one ball afterwards passed between the balloon and the car.

The mails, which had been previously conveyed on horseback, were, since 1784, by the recommendation of John Palmer, carried in regularly established coaches: three years after the beginning of the great revolutionary war, telegraphs were copied from the French plan: in 1800, the vaccine inoculation was perfected in England, by Dr. Jenner: about the same time, public buildings were heated by steam, and lighted by carbureted hydrogen gas; and Lancaster spread his amazing system of elementary school-education.

In 1787, the British government established the colony of Botany Bay; as a residence for convicts. The progress of this settlement has been rapid. It has now a population of almost 50,000: amongst a large portion of these, the cause of transportation is not observable; they have acquired habits of industry and good conduct, and use the arts and luxuries of polished states.

Nearly all Hindostan is at length comprised within the British empire. Her colonial subjects number one-hundred-and-fifty-millions; which are computed to be one fourth of all mankind, covering a fifth of the habitable globe

The medical science had many accomplished professors. Its greatest ornaments were, Cullen, Cleghorne, Hunter,

Smellie, Fordyce, and Mac Bride. In the fine arts, we distinguish Boydell, Strange, and Woolet, as engravers; Hogarth and Barrett, Barry, Stubbs, and Opie, Gainsborough, Moreland, and Sir Joshua Reynolds, as painters. Hogarth was also conspicuous in the graphic, and Stubbs in the anatomical, school. The former, though not remarkable for elegance, stands unrivaled for originality of conception and strength of expression; either in delineating the follies, or the dangerous vices, of mankind. On the establishment of the Royal Academy, in 1769, none seemed so well entitled to the honourable office of president, as Reynolds; and he was accordingly appointed. Sculpture acquired cotemporaneous improvement. Besides the accession of foreign talent, England may justly boast of the correct and expressive chisel of her native Bacon. In Music, the compositions of Arnold and Arne will be admired, whilst there remains an ear to appreciate, or feeling to sympathize with harmony.

At the head of astronomy and mechanics, by universal concurrence, is placed James Ferguson; a man who learned to read by hearing his father teach his elder brother, and, during his whole life, had not above half a year's instruction at school. His "Lectures," which are so perspicuous that they cannot be misunderstood, will be found equally instructive and amusing.

Amongst the dramatic writers are Colman, general Burgoyne, Murphy, and Cumberland; Home, Foot, Garrick, and Dibden. The last three were distinguished also as performers.

Foot was an ever-flowing fountain of colloquial wit. He had the misfortune to require a wooden leg. Being once on a visit at a friend's house, near London, at Christmas, he found the rigour of the season little softened by the influence of a blazing hearth. He resolved to shorten the period of his intended stay, and was one morning, very early, preparing to depart. "What is the matter, my dear Foot," exclaimed his fuel-saving host: "what can be the reason of this unexpected hurry?"—"Oh, there is no reason at all," replied his half-frozen guest; "only, that as coals are so very scarce here, I was afraid that, some morning, before I was up, Betty might thrust my right leg into the fire."

Garrick was unrivaled for a quick perception of propriety, and a consequent observance of the ways of nature. He was always seen "to suit the action to the word," and "the

word to the action." No public speaker, however eminent, was above listening to his precepts, and profiting by his example. A young clergyman having requested him to notice the manner in which he administered divine service, Garrick very kindly attended. On leaving the church together, Garrick took hold of his friend's arm, whose countenance and gait betokened self-applause.—"Have you any urgent business, to attend to, after service?" inquired Garrick. "No; none at all!" replied the divine: "why, do you ask me such a question?"—I thought you had something pressing, from your going up into the pulpit in so much haste.—What was that *book*, on the desk before you?—That book!—why, only the Bible!—"*Only the Bible*," rejoined his acute monitor: "I thought it had been a merchant's leger, or a journal,—some common account book, left accidentally in your way, from your tossing it about with so much indifference."

In poetry, the most successful candidates for lasting fame, are, Falconer, Grainger, and Armstrong; Glover, Mason, and Chatterton; Goldsmith, and Johnson; Churchill, Burns, Cowper, Darwin, Beattie, and Walcott. With the first five names, it is sufficient to associate, respectively, The Shipwreck; A Poem on the Sugar Cane, and a translation of Tibullus; The Art of preserving Health; Leonidas; Elfrida, and Caractacus. A more extraordinary youth has seldom appeared than Chatterton. He published a number of poems which he described as written about three-hundred years before, by Rowley, a monk of Bristol; declaring, that he had received them from his father, whose family had held, for nearly one-hundred-and-fifty years, the office of sexton of Redclift church; and that they had remained buried in dust, in an old chest, above the chapel.

The Traveller of Goldsmith abounds with animated description; his Deserted Village exhibits beauties peculiarly its own, and, for harmony and softness, is not inferior to the happiest lines of Pope. As long as the simple tale of indigent nature and suffering humanity can interest the heart, so long will the poetry of Goldsmith continue to be read. This amiable man studied at Trinity College, Dublin; for which university he was prepared by the Rev. Mr. Hughes, of Edgeworthtown, in the county of Longford, the district of his nativity. In his last journey to school, he had an adventure, which is thought to have suggested the plot of his admired comedy, She Stoops to Con

quer, or the Mistakes of a Night. Some friend had given him a guinea; and, in his way to Edgeworthtown, (about twenty miles from his father's house,) he had diverted himself by viewing the gentlemen's seats on the road, until, at the approach of night, he reached a small town, named Ardagh. Here, he inquired for the "best house" in the place, meaning the best inn; but, being understood too literally, he was directed to the house of a private gentleman; where, calling for somebody to take his horse and lead him to the stable, he alighted, and was shown into the parlour; supposed to be a guest come to visit the master. The gentleman immediately discovered the mistake; and being a man of humour, and also learning from him the name of his father, who happened to be his acquaintance, he encouraged the deception. Goldsmith accordingly "called about him," ordered a good supper, and generously invited the master, his wife and daughters, to partake; treated them with a bottle or two of wine, and, on going to bed, ordered a hot cake to be prepared for his breakfast; nor did he, until at his departure, when he asked for the bill, discover, that he had been hospitably entertained in a private family. Doctor Goldsmith died in 1772, in his 46th year. Many scenes of his life are extremely interesting. In his Vicar of Wakefield, the philosophical wanderer is supposed to be drawn from his own adventures; and, in his Citizen of the World, he gives an account of his worthy father, under the character of "the man in black."

Dr. Johnson was born at Lichfield, and died in 1784; having attained the age of 75. He studied for about three years at Oxford; where his collegiate exercises displayed superior powers. He first visited London with his pupil, Garrick; who, like himself, was in quest of employment. In 1738, he published his "London," in imitation of Juvenal's third satire; which was so favourably received, that it passed to a second edition within a week. But, were we to consider Johnson merely as a poet, we should form a very inadequate estimate of his erudition, talents, and perseverance. Although his Dictionary of the English Language, and his Rambler, are only a small portion of his labours, they are sufficient to elevate him to a high degree of fame. The former was published in 1775. The Rambler, he continued for two years; writing a Number for every Tuesday and Saturday: during which period, he was engaged with his dictionary, only five papers were contributed by others, and he was frequently distracted by anguish

and disease. His dictionary, however, would admit of considerable improvement. The derivations of words, from foreign languages are too frequently given from compounds; the definitions and examples exhibit rather the various senses in which words *have been* written, than the classical acceptation in which they *may be* used with propriety and elegance; a large number have been admitted which are obsolete; and many, of his own forming, that are both useless and pedantic. It might, with advantage, be curtailed to half its present size.—Johnson has been justly entitled the great Moralist. In his Rambler, we perceive the most profound and elevated ethics; and the style exhibits the English language in its highest state of sublimity and magnificence. But that work was not so splendid or correct, on its first appearance. The assertion of Mr. Boswell, his *minute* biographer, is erroneous, when he says that a copy printed at Edinburgh, from the periodical papers, "is the most accurate and beautiful edition." It received, in the second and third editions, several thousand alterations; many of which seem indispensable, to protect it from the animadversions of the most liberal critic. Boswell was fond of inflating trifles, and recording even the infirmities of his illustrious patron; as if he had despaired of transmitting his name to posterity, by his own merits, but sought, like the destroyer of the Ephesian temple, to gain associated immortality amongst ruins.

Robert Burns, though literally a ploughman, rose to high poetic fame, by the strong powers of his genius; and was soon drawn from his agricultural profession, to the company of men of letters. Since the days of Shakespeare, perhaps not any have portrayed the nice shades of the human character with so masterly a hand, as Burns: especially in those poems written in the Scottish dialect. No readers, however, except those of Scotland, or of the northern counties of England and Ireland, where that dialect is familiar, can fully appreciate the beauties of this poet. His countryman, Dr. Currie, long known as an eminent physician in Liverpool, published in 1800, four years after the death of Burns, a fine edition of his works; and benevolently assigned the entire profit to his widow and children.

Beattie is deservedly admired for his Minstrel: Cowper, for his translation of Homer, in blank verse, and his Task: Walcott, for his satires, with the assumed name of Peter Pindar. Cowper, is also the author of John Gilpin, a popu-

lar ballad; the story of which was related to him, as amusement in a tedious hour, by his friend Lady Austin.

Robertson and Gibbon, are to be considered as historians: Hume, in addition to the character of historian, ranks high in the abstruse philosophy of metaphysics. Of these great writers, the last two may be pronounced the more acute and elaborate reasoners; the first the most generally esteemed. Hume's great performance, is the History of England; Gibbon's, the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. The most admired works of Robertson, are the History of Charles the fifth, and the History of America. Sterne, by his Tristram Shandy, and Sentimental Journey, has obtained the honour of introducing a new species of composition; and, whatever may be objected to particular passages in these, he stands pre-eminent in awaking the noblest sympathies of the human heart. Besides the writings which Blair and Paley have left, connected with religion, the former has given us the most valuable lectures on rhetoric and belles lettres; the latter, the most popular work on moral philosophy, that Great Britain has ever produced. The English language owes much to the profound researches of Bishop Lowth, son of the eminent divine, mentioned in the last reign; and to John Horne Tooke. In his grammar, though it is now nearly obsolete, Lowth has shown a philosophical knowledge of our language, and given a foundation on which subsequent improvements have been raised. He is still more eminent for his lectures on the sacred Hebrew poetry, delivered at Oxford. Horne Tooke, in his Diversions of Purley, has inquired into the derivations of English words, from the Saxon, with extraordinary, and successful, minuteness. He was also one of the most active politicians of his day. Having been occasionally of a different opinion from Junius, he opposed him with so much ability, that, notwithstanding the powerful logic of this unknown author, every unprejudiced reader must assign the victory to Horne. Of the powers of mind and comprehensive information evinced by Adam Smith, his Wealth of Nations will be a memorial to the latest posterity. Graves is the author of lucubrations in prose and rhyme, published under the name of Peter Pomfret; and of an ingenious performance called the Spiritual Quixote. No lawyer ever contributed so much to lessen the difficulties of his profession, as sir William Blackstone. His Commentaries are invaluable, and should be studied by every gentleman who feels interested in the laws of Eng-

land. In a different walk, lord Kaimes is almost equally distinguished. His elements of Criticism, and Sketches, are not less calculated to give amusement than instruction.

Postlethwaite and Anderson wrote on commercial economy: Grose was equally devoted to antiquities. Hawkesworth is author of the Adventurer, besides, a Narration of Discoveries in the Pacific Ocean; and sir William Jones, by his Oriental Researches, has excited very general admiration. The church was adorned by the unrivaled appeals of Kirwan. "He called forth the latent virtues of the human heart, and taught men to discover in themselves a mine of charity, of which their proprietors had been unconscious. He came to interrupt the repose of the pulpit, and shake one world with the thunder of another."

The female pen, if it did not contribute to the advancement of science, was, at least, conducive to amusement. Many females, however, achieved no more than mere common-place romances. But, the names of More, Hamilton, and Inchbald; Opie and Barbauld; Williams, Burney, and Edgeworth; will be respected: they have combined morality with recreation.*

Whilst those were following the retired inclinations of the closet, others sought renown by exploring the most distant regions of the globe. Of these, some chose the burning desert, some the boisterous surface of the deep. The one has given celebrity to Bruce and Park; the other to Byron, Wallis, Carteret, and Cook. The Royal Society, wishing to observe the transit of Venus, over the sun's disk, from some of the islands in the Pacific, captain Cook was appointed to command the ship Endeavour. Accompanied by sir Joseph Banks, Dr. Solander, and Mr. Green, he reached Otaheite in April, 1769; the place where the observations were to be made. In his third voyage round the world, after making many useful discoveries, he was killed in a quarrel with the natives of Owyhee, one of the Sandwich Islands, in 1779.

Every one is familiar with the name of Howard, the celebrated philanthropist. On his way to Lisbon, to view the dreadful consequences of an earthquake which destroyed that city in the year 1755, being captured by a French privateer, the severities of confinement he endured in France, excited that sympathy for suffering captives, which has rendered his memory so illustrious. A statue, erected in

* Several of these accomplished females are still living.

St. Paul's, represents him in a Roman dress, holding in one hand a scroll of writings on the improvement of prisons, and in the other, a key; whilst he tramples upon chains and fetters.

Two remarkable instances of longevity are noticed Colonel Winslow died, in Ireland, aged 146, and Consest, in England, at the yet more patriarchal age of 150 years

Architecture, useful as well as ornamental, has in thi reign employed very general attention. Black Friar's Bridge, in London, combines both utility and elegance. The first stone of this important means of communication, which is eleven-hundred feet long, and was finished at an expense of more than one-hundred-and-fifty-thousand pounds, was laid a few days after the late monarch ascended the throne. The Irish capital, however, especially in the Custom-House, on which was expended seven-hundred-thousand, and the Four Courts, which cost five-hundred-thousand pounds, exhibits the most classical and magnificent public buildings, that have been erected, perhaps in any country of Europe, since the finishing of St. Paul's cathedral.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND

CHAPTER XIX.

GEORGE THE FOURTH.

FIRST PART.

His Private History. 1820—1830

BY the death of his afflicted parent, the regency, after a continuance of almost nine years, was at an end, and the Prince of Wales became monarch of the British empire, under the title of George IV.

He was now in the fifty-eighth year of his age, having been born on the 12th of August, 1762; a day deemed auspicious by the people of England, being the anniversary of the Hanoverian succession to the British throne. Princes soon become public personages; and his royal highness displayed himself at a sufficiently early age; for in 1765 he received a deputation from the Society of Ancient Britons, on St. David's day. The prince's answer to their address, was certainly not long; for it was simply—"I thank you for this mark of duty to the king, and wish prosperity to the charity:"—though probably an earlier speech has seldom been made; the speaker being not quite three years old. But it was not lost upon the courtiers. They declared that it was delivered with the happiest grace of manner and action; and that the features of future oratory were more than palpable: all which the flatterers of royalty are bound to believe as true.

The prince at length reached a period when it became necessary to commence his education. In 1771, Lord Holdernesse was appointed governor: the preceptors were Dr. Markham and Cyril Jackson. In the usual branches of classical education, he was carefully instructed; and the prince often afterwards expressed his gratitude to those assiduous teachers. But, although the classics might flourish in the princely establishment, it soon became obvious that peace did not flourish along with them. Rumours of discontent rapidly escaped, even from the close confines of the palace; and, at length the public, less surprised than perplexed, heard the formal announcement, that the whole preceptorship of his royal highness had sent in their resignations. Those disturbances were the first and the inevitable results of the system. Lord Holdernesse obscurely complained, that attempts had been made to obtain an illegitimate influence over the prince's mind. Public rumour was active in throwing light upon what the courtly caution of the noble governor had covered with shade. The foreign politics of the former reigns, the Scotch premier (lord North,) and the German blood of the queen, became

common topics of reprehension; and it was loudly asserted, that the great object of the intrigue was to supersede the prince's British principles, by the despotic doctrines of Hanover.

A new establishment of tutors was now to be formed for the Prince of Wales. It bore striking evidence of haste; as lord Bruce, who was placed at its head, resigned within a few days. Some ridicule was thrown upon this rapid secession, by the story that the young prince had thought proper to inquire into his lordships attainments, and, finding that the pupil knew more of classics than the master, had exhibited on the occasion the very reverse of courtiership. Lord Bruce was succeeded by the Duke of Montague; with Hurd, bishop of Litchfield, and the reverend Mr. Arnald, as preceptors.

In 1783, at a period of most luxurious and dissolute manners in the British metropolis, the Prince of Wales commenced his public career. His rank alone would have secured him flatterers; but he had higher titles to homage. He was then one of the handsomest men in Europe; his countenance open and manly; his figure tall, and strikingly proportioned; his address remarkable for easy elegance, and his whole air singularly noble. But he possessed qualities which might have atoned for a less attractive exterior. He spoke the principal modern languages with sufficient skill: he was a tasteful musician; his acquaintance with English literature, was, in early life, unusually accurate and extensive. Markham's discipline, and Jackson's scholarship, had given him a large portion of classical knowledge; and nature had gifted him with the more important public talent of speaking with fluency, dignity, and vigour.

His establishment at Carlton House soon involved him in pecuniary embarrassments, from which he was never thoroughly extricated, even by the repeated liberality of parliament. Yet, notwithstanding his inadequacy of means to his habits of lavish expenditure, he was prevailed on to commence the erection of a country seat. For this purpose, he selected Brighton, then a little fishing village; and, having purchased a few acres of ground, he began to build. His first work was a cottage, in a field. The prince's household and visiters gradually increased, and there was then no other resource, but in a few additional apartments. It was at last found that those repeated improvements were deformities, and that their expense would be better employed in making a complete change. From this change, grew the present Pavilion; the perpetual ridicule of witty tourists, and certainly unsuited in style to its present incumbered and narrow site, and perhaps to European taste. Yet the happiest hours of the prince's life were spent in this cottage. The society at the Pavilion was remarkably attractive; no prince in Europe passed so much of his time in society expressly chosen by himself. The prince's table afforded the display of men too independent, both by their place in society, and their consciousness of intellectual power, to feel themselves embarrassed by the presence of superior rank. Hare, Jekyll, Fitzpatrick, and Erskine, with the great parliamentary leaders, were constant guests; and the round was varied by the introduction of celebrated foreigners and other persons capable of adding to the interest of the circle.

Some of the sayings of the prince and his companions are still remembered.—The merit of Hare's *jeux d'esprit* was their readiness and their oddity.—Fox, after the fall of the coalition ministry, coming to dinner at the Pavilion, just as he had returned from London, and apologizing for his appearing in his dishabille, and without powder;—"Oh," said

Hare, "make no apology; our great guns are *discharged*, and now we may all do without *powder*."

"Pleasant news, this, from America," said he, meeting general Fitzpatrick on the first intelligence of Burgoyne's defeat.—The general doubted, and replied, "that he had just come from the secretary of state's office, without hearing any thing of it;"—"Perhaps so," said Hare, "but take it from me as a *flying* rumour."

On the king's opening the session of parliament, the prince had gone in state, in a military uniform, with diamond epaulettes. At dinner, general Doyle came in late, and, to the prince's inquiry "whether he had seen the procession?" answered, that he had been amongst the mob, "who prodigiously admired his royal highness's equipage."—"And did they say nothing else?" asked the prince, who was at this time a good deal talked of, from his incumbrances.—"Yes. One fellow, looking at your epaulette, said, 'Tom, what an amazing fine thing the prince has got on his shoulders!'—'Ay,' answered the other, 'fine enough; and fine as it is, it will soon be *on our shoulders*.'"—The prince paused a moment, then looked Doyle in the face, and laughing, said, "Ah! I know where that hit came from, you rogue; that could be nobody's but yours. Come, take some wine."

Curran, the celebrated Irish barrister, was a frequent guest at the Pavilion, and all his recollections of it were panegyrical. He said that, considered as a test of colloquial liveliness and wit, he had never met with any thing superior to the prince's table; that the prince himself was amongst the very first there, and that he had never met any man who kept him more on the *qui vive*.

The regency question, of which we have spoken in a preceding chapter,* drove the prince from politics. The result was disastrous to himself, to the kingdom, and to the king. It abandoned him to pursuits still more obnoxious than those of public ambition. It encouraged his natural taste for those indulgences, which, however common to wealth and rank, are, in all their shapes, hostile to the practical virtues, and high-minded purposes of life; and it embarrassed his circumstances, until, pressed by creditors, and entangled by a multitude of nameless perplexities, he suffered himself to be urged into a marriage, formed without respect or attachment, and endured in bitterness and vexation, until its close.

The prince's marriage now became the principal topic. The duke of York had already been married some years, but was still childless; and the king, naturally anxious to see an undisputed succession, and leave his descendants masters of the throne, strongly urged the heir-apparent to select a wife from the royal families of Europe; and thus give a pledge to the empire, of that change of habits, and that compliance with the popular wish, which, in those days of revolution, might even be essential to the public safety.—In an evil hour, without affection on either side, he consented to give his hand to his cousin, Caroline Amelia Elizabeth, daughter of the duke of Brunswick, and niece to his majesty George III., then in her twenty-fifth year; and on the 8th April, 1795, the nuptial ceremony was performed at St. James's palace.

The royal marriage was inauspicious. Through the insidious management of Lady Jersey, one of the female favourites of the Prince of

* Page 234.

Wales, a partial separation was effected; and it was soon rumoured, that the disagreements of habit and temper, on both sides, were too strong, to give any hopes of their being reconciled.

The king still interposed his good intentions, and desired that the princess should, at least, reside under the same roof with her husband. She had apartments at Carlton House, while the prince spent his time chiefly at Brighton. But Charlton, a village near Blackheath, was finally selected for her residence; and there, with the princess Charlotte, her daughter, who was born on the 7th January, 1796, and some ladies in attendance, she lived for several years; not, however, without drawing upon herself serious imputations in relation to her private conduct.

SECOND PART.

Thistlewood Conspiracy.—Death of Henry Grattan.—Trial of the Queen.—Coronation.—Death of the Queen.—Visit of the King to Ireland, and to Hanover.

THE situation of the country, at the commencement of the year 1820, was more tranquil than the violent popular agitation of the preceding months had given reason to expect.

The death of a sovereign generally gives birth to many hopes and fears, in the bosoms of different persons, and to various speculations concerning the line of conduct likely to be pursued. New prejudices, and new connexions begin to exert an influence upon public affairs. If there were (as there always must be) any measures of the preceding reign unpalatable to a considerable part of the community, a pleasing alteration is expected, from the real or supposed virtues of the new sovereign. But these feelings, and these delusions, had no scope at the accession of George IV. The new sovereign had already held the reins of power for nearly nine years; his character and habits were known; his public policy had long been declared and put into practice; nor was there the slightest probability that any alteration would occur, either in the selection of those to whom the administration was entrusted, nor in the principles on which it was conducted. The royal power was in the same hands as before: it was in the title only that there had occurred a change. The seals were continued in the hands of lord Eldon; and the other cabinet ministers were severally re-appointed to their former offices.

Though, however, there had appeared no likelihood of a change, yet the ministry narrowly escaped a speedy and tragical termination. The conspiracy formed for their destruction, was one of the most atrocious, though extraordinary plots, recorded in the annals of any country. Its ultimate end was to effect a revolution; its immediate object, the assassination of the ministers. The persons engaged in it were few in number, low in situation, without knowledge, resources, or foresight.

The framer of this plot, was Arthur Thistlewood. Born about the year 1770, he set out in life originally with some fortune, and with a fair proportion of the advantages of education. He had been a subaltern officer, first in the militia, afterwards in a regiment of the line, stationed in the West Indies. After having resigned his commission, and spent some time in America, he passed into France, where he arrived shortly

after the fall of Robespierre. He had been deeply engaged in the wicked and absurd scheme of Dr. Watson. Having been, like the latter, acquitted, he thought proper, soon afterwards, to send a challenge to Lord Sidmouth. That nobleman had recourse to the laws, and Thistlewood was punished by imprisonment and fine. On his liberation, in August 1819, he found himself in circumstances which stimulated the natural violence and habitual corruption of his disposition. Ambitious, without any of those advantages of fortune or of talent, by which, in the regular course of things, ambition can be gratified, he found himself excluded from every respectable class in society, without sources of present enjoyment, or hopes of future improvement in his condition. He now associated only with the most degraded of the lowest class · spending his time in forming and maintaining connexions with men whose poverty and profligacy fitted them for any enterprise. Gradually, he collected around him a number of individuals, equally desperate with himself, all bent on the destruction of the ministers. Ings, a butcher, Tidd and Brunt, shoe-makers; and a man of colour, named Davidson, were his principal confidants. After the death of the late king, their meetings were held twice a-day, and began to take a more determinate aim. At one time, it was proposed, that, availing themselves of the absence of the greater number of the troops, in consequence of the royal funeral, they should endeavour to get possession of the metropolis; but this scheme was rejected, as not involving the sure destruction of the ministers. At last, it was resolved, at one of their meetings, that poverty did not allow them to delay their purposes any longer; and they determined to murder the ministers, who, it was announced, were to be present at a cabinet-dinner at lord Harrowby's, on Wednesday, the 23d of February, at his house in Grosvenor Square. One of the conspirators was to go with a note, addressed to lord Harrowby; when the door was opened to him, a part of their number were to rush in; and, while some seized the servants, and prevented any person from escaping from the house, others, forcing their way into the room where the ministers were assembled, were to murder them without mercy. It was particularly specified, that the heads of lords Sidmouth and Castlereagh were to be brought away in a bag. From lord Harrowby's house, two of their number were to proceed to throw fire-balls into the straw-shed of the cavalry barracks in King-street, while the rest were to co-operate in the execution of the subsequent parts of the scheme. In the course of the day, several of the infatuated wretches met, from time to time, at the old place of rendezvous, in a court adjacent to Gray's-Inn-lane; and, towards six in the evening, they assembled in a stable, situated in an obscure street, called Cato-street, in the neighbourhood of Edgeware-road. Besides the stable in the lower part, the building contained two rooms above, accessible only by a ladder; in the larger of which, a sentinel having been stationed below, the conspirators mustered, to the number of about twenty-five; all busy in adjusting their accoutrements, by the scanty light of one or two candles, and exulting in the near approach of the bloody catastrophe.

All these machinations, however, were known to the very men, whom they hoped, within an hour, to see lying butchered at their feet. One of the conspirators, Edwards, had, for some time, been in the pay of government, to whom, he communicated every step that was taken. The ministers made no movement that might deter or alarm the ruffians.

The preparations for the dinner proceeded at lord Harrowby's house until eight in the evening, though, in fact, no dinner was to be given.

In the mean time, a strong party of Bow-street constables proceeded to Cato-street, where they were to be met and supported by a detachment of the Coldstream guards. The police officers reached the spot about eight o'clock. They immediately entered the stable, and, mounting the ladder, found the conspirators in the loft, on the point of proceeding to the execution of their scheme. The principal officer called upon them to surrender. One of the constables, pressing forward to seize Thistlewood, was pierced by him through the body, and immediately fell. The lights in the loft were now extinguished; some of the conspirators rushed down the ladder, and the officers along with them; others forced their way out through a window in the back part of the building. At this moment the detachment of the military arrived, rather later than the precise time fixed. Two of the conspirators, who were in the act of escaping, were seized; nine more were taken that evening, and conveyed to prison Thistlewood was amongst those who had escaped; but he was arrested the next morning, in bed; and some others were seized in the course of the next two days. Thistlewood, and his companions, Ing, Brunt, Tidd, and Davidson, were severally tried, convicted, and executed; six more of the conspirators pleaded guilty; five of whom were transported for life: and one, who appeared to have joined the conspirators in Cato-street, without being aware of its tragical purpose, received a pardon.

The new parliament assembled on the 20th April. Mr. Manners Sutton was again elected speaker of the house of commons; and on the 27th, the king opened the session in person, by delivering a speech from the throne.

In the course of the session, the house was deprived of one of its most eminent members. Mr. Grattan had come over from Ireland, to take his seat once more, for the especial purpose of advocating the claims of the Roman Catholics. On his arrival in London, he found himself in a weak state of health, which rendered him incapable of exertion; his infirmities increased, and he expired, without having again appeared in that house which he had so often instructed and delighted. The claims of the catholics was the last subject that occupied his thoughts: and, in his dying hour, he exhorted them, how often soever they might be disappointed, to abstain from taking any part in the dissentions that might be caused by existing differences in the royal family; and never to make common cause with the abettors of radical reform and universal suffrage.

Mr. Grattan may be considered as the last of those celebrated parliamentary orators, who dignified the close of the eighteenth, and the commencement of the nineteenth century. He had been the cotemporary and the rival of Pitt, of Fox, of Sheridan, of Windham, and, if he did not surpass them as orators, he exhibited at least a peculiar species of brilliant eloquence, in which he had no equal. In losing him, the house of commons was deprived, not only of one of its most distinguished individuals, but of the last member of one of the most illustrious band of orators that it had ever possessed, at any one time.

Mr. Grattan's son came forward as a candidate for the vacancy in the representation of the city of Dublin, caused by his father's death; but he was successfully opposed by Mr. Ellis, one of the masters of the Irish chancery

No rank can expect to be free from the common visitations of life; and George the Fourth, always much attached to his relations, had suffered, within a few years, the loss of his royal mother;* of his brother, the duke of Kent,† only a week before the death of his father; and of his daughter, the Princess Charlotte;‡ all regretted by the nation; but the loss of the last creating an unexampled sorrow.

But he had scarcely ascended the throne, when perplexities of a more harassing kind awaited him. The Princess Caroline, his consort, who had long resided in Italy, announced her determination of returning to England, and demanding the appointments and rank of queen. Her life abroad had given rise to the grossest imputations; and her presiding at the court of England, while those imputations continued, would have been intolerable. But the means adopted to abate the offence, argued a singular ignorance of human nature. Lord Liverpool was utterly unequal to the emergency: always, hitherto, a feeble, unpurposed, and timid minister, he now assumed a preposterous courage, and defied this desperate woman. He had even the folly to bring her to trial; with what ultimate object, is inconceivable. That he could not have obtained a divorce, the reason was obvious; because she could easily have recriminated upon her husband. If she had been found guilty, he could neither have exiled, nor imprisoned her; his only resource must have been her decapitation; yet he knew that the people of England would have risen indignantly against so cruel and horrid a sentence. There was but one alternative remaining—to be defeated.

The queen was probably a criminal, to the full extent of the charge But there had been so long a course of espionage, which the English mind justly abhors: the practices against her had been so shameful, and the details of the evidence were so repulsive, that the crime was forgotten, in the public scorn of the accusers. The feeling, however suppressed in the higher ranks, had its full operation with the multitude; and while the ministers were constrained to steal down to the house of lords, or were visible only to receive all species of insults from the mob, the queen went daily to her trial in a popular triumph. Her levees at Brandenburgh House, a small villa on the banks of the Thames, where she resided for the season, were still more triumphant. Daily processions of the people filled the road. The artisans marched with the badges of their callings; the brotherhoods of trade; the masonic lodges; the friendly societies; all the nameless incorporations, which make their charters without the aid of office, and give their little senates laws, down to the fish-women; paid their respects, in full costume; and assured her majesty, in many a high-flown piece of eloquence, of her "living in the hearts of her faithful people."

Concession after concession was forced from ministers. The title of queen was acknowledged; and finally, on the 10th of November, the earl of Liverpool, defeated in the house of lords, and become an object of outrageous detestation to the populace, admitted that he could proceed no further, and withdrew the prosecution. The announcement was received with a roar of victory in the house of commons: the sound was caught by the multitude, and London was filled with acclamations.

The graver judgment of the country regretted, that, by the rashness which suffered a question of individual vice to be mingled with one of

* 17th Nov. 1818. † 23d Jan. 1820. ‡ 6th Nov 1817

public principle, the crime received the sanction which belonged only to the virtue. But the deed was done; and the only hope now was, that it might be speedily forgotten. But this the queen would not suffer: the furious passions of the woman were still unappeased. She took a house within sight of the palace, that she might present the perpetual offence of her mobs to the royal eye: she libelled the king; she pursued him to public places; and persevered in this foolish vindictiveness, until she completely lost the sympathy of the people. At length, she determined to insult him at the coronation, in the presence of his nobles, and in the highest ceremonial of his throne.

The heavens were most propitious to the celebration of this splendid and interesting ceremony. Never was there seen a calmer or more brilliant morning. At the early hour of four, on the 19th of July, the door of Westminster Hall was opened to the crowd. We shall endeavour to give a picture of the Hall, as it was then beheld. The reader must imagine a long and lofty room, (the longest and widest in Europe, we believe, without the support of pillars) lined with two tiers of galleries covered with red cloth, and carpeted down the middle with broad-cloth of blue. At the very end, facing the north, were erected two gothic towers, with an archway, which led to Palace Yard, and over this was a huge gothic window. The tables for the feast extended on each side; and at the head, on a raised platform, was a bright gold throne, with a square table standing before it, on which was a costly blue cloth, worked with gold. Doors on each side led up to the galleries. The dark fretted roof, from which hung bright chandeliers, was an admirable relief to the whole. Along the cloth-covered pavement, all was life, and eagerness, and joy, and hope. Here, were to be seen the pages putting back a cluster of plumed beauties, with a respectful determination and courtly haste:—there, a flight of peeresses, feathered, and attired in white, winging their way, as though in hopeless speed, like birds to their allotted dove-cotes. In one place, you might behold some magnificent soldier, half in confusion, half in self-satisfaction, pausing, in bewildered doubt and pleasure, over his own splendid attire:—in another, those who had reached their seats were sighing happily, adjusting their dresses, and gazing around with delight at the troubles of others below them. The light streamed in at the great window, like a flood of illumined water, and touched every plume, and every cheek. Expectation seemed to have given a bloom of life to each female countenance, as if to compensate for the ravages endeavoured to be made by broken rest and fatigue. Some of the royal family were seated in the state-box, at a very early hour. Over the royal box, sat the ladies of the principal officers of state; and immediately opposite, were the foreign ambassadors and their suites. About seven o'clock, Miss Fellowes (his majesty's herb-woman) with her hand-maids in white, was conducted into the hall, and took her seat at the lower end.

The hall now rapidly filled, not with mere visiters only, but with knights, and pages, and noble serving men, all in the richest dresses. The barons of the cinque-ports rehearsed the ceremony of bearing the gold canopy down the hall; exciting, in no small degree, the mirth of the company; for they staggered along at most uneven paces; and one splendid personage in powder could not walk straight, so encumbered was he with a sense of his own magnificence.

The interest now manifestly deepened at every moment, and not a plume

in the galleries was still. At length, the judges, the law-officers, the gentlemen of the privy chamber, the aldermen of London, and the king's chaplain, entered the hall, and gave sign of preparation. The Knights of the Bath, in splendid dresses, arranged themselves at the lower end of the hall. The officers attendant on the knights commanders, wore crimson satin vests, ornamented with white; and over these a white silk mantle. They also wore ruffs, chains, and badges. Their stockings were of white silk, with crimson roses. The Knights Commanders of the Bath wore the prevalent costume of the day—*a la Henri Quatre*—with ruffs, and hats turned up in front. Their vests and slashed plantaloons were of white satin, overspread with small silver lace; their cloaks were short, of crimson satin, embroidered with the star of the order, and lined with white. Their half-boots were of white silk, with red heels, crimson satin tops, and crimson roses; their spurs were of gold; their sword-belts and sheathes, white; and their hats were black, with white ostrich feathers. The dress of the knights grand crosses had all the beauty of the knights commanders, with rather more magnificence; it being, in all respects the same, except, that for the short cloak was substituted an ample flowing mantle, and for the feathers a larger and loftier plume.

The privy counsellors were dressed in blue satin and gold.

The doors of the hall, which had been opened, were suddenly closed; and there was a confused murmur amongst the persons at the gateway, which was soon circulated and explained, by a buzz of "the queen! the queen!!" Some of the attendants were, for the moment, alarmed; and the ladies were, for an instant, disturbed with an apprehension of some mysterious danger;—but the queen soon retired, the gates were presently re-opened, and all proceeded as gayly as before.

The peers now poured in from behind the throne, robed in crimson velvet, with ermine tippets, and rich coronets. The royal dukes also entered, and took their seats on each side of the throne. At about half-past nine, the names of the peers were called over by one of the heralds, and the order of their procession was arranged.

The long expected moment arrived; and the people arose with waving handkerchiefs, and lofty voices, to greet the entrance of the king. His majesty advanced, arrayed in a stately dress. On his head was a rich purple velvet cap, jewelled, and adorned with a plume of ostrich feathers. His robe was of crimson velvet, spreading amply abroad, and studded with golden stars. Eight young noblemen supported the train. The king looked down his hall of state with a proud expression of delight; and the eyes of the attendant ladies seemed to sparkle thrice vividly, with the consciousness of their being the living lights and jewels of the scene.

The whole arrangements for the procession being perfected, the duke of Wellington, as lord high constable, and lord Howard of Effingham, as earl marshal, ascended the steps of the platform, and stood at the outer side of the table, while the train-bearers stationed themselves on each side of the throne.

The three swords were then presented by the lord chamberlain, and the officers of the jewel office; and the gold spurs were, in like manner, delivered, and placed upon the table. The noblemen and bishops who were to bear the regalia having been summoned, the several swords,

sceptres, the orb, and crown, were delivered to them separately, and the procession immediately began to move. The martial music heralded the cavalcade along; and the procession itself seemed one stream of varying and exquisite colour. It poured forth through the gray gothic arch at the end of the hall, in slow, solemn, and brilliant beauty, and nothing could surpass the gorgeous effect of the whole scene.

The king left his throne, and descended the steps of the platform. The splendid golden canopy, of which we have before spoken, awaited his majesty at the foot of the steps; but he walked under it, and past it, and so continued to precede it until he left the hall. His course was magnificent, down the thronged avenue into the open air;—the ladies standing up with waving handkerchiefs, and the brilliant attendants thronging around the sovereign, with busy pride, and a restless consciousness of their glory; while the king looked about him with marked delight, and smiled on his people.

The hall was soon nearly half emptied, by those who had tickets to view the solemn ceremony of the crowning in the abbey. The procession was ushered into the gateway by Miss Fellowes, and her group of young ladies in white, scattering flowers. On the king's canopy appearing, a universal shout arose, and the coronation anthem was commenced:—"I was glad when they said unto me, Let us go into the house of the Lord."—The full chorus was awfully sublime, and thrilled all hearers, while the august crowd poured magnificently forward; the canopy stopped at the chancel, and his majesty advanced to the sacrarium, attended by the officers bearing the regalia.

The king now stood up, and the archbishop of Canterbury turned on all sides to the people, saying, "I present you King George the Fourth, the undoubted king of this realm; wherefore all you that come this day to do him homage, are you willing to do the same?"—The shout was sublime—the multitude standing up, and waving caps and handkerchiefs for several minutes, while the plumes tossed about in the chancel and transept, like a brilliant stormy sea.

Certain services were now performed, and, after short prayers were said, a sermon was delivered by the archbishop of York. The coronation-oath was next administered to the king; when, arising out of his chair, supported as before, he went to the altar, and there, being uncovered, made his solemn oath, in the sight of all the people, to observe the promises; laying his right hand upon the holy gospel in the great bible, which had been carried in the procession, and was now brought from the altar by the archbishop, and tendered to him as he knelt upon the steps, saying these words;—

"The things which I have before promised, I will perform and keep; So help me God."

Now followed the anointing, succeeded by two anthems; and, after other ceremonies, the king sat down in Edward's Chair, and was crowned by the archbishop. At this moment, the shouts of the people had a fine effect. The trumpets sounded forth their martial music, and the guns of the Park and of the Tower were instantaneously fired.

His majesty was now borne to his throne, by the bishops and peers around him. Homage was then done by the peers; after which ceremony, each class or degree going by themselves, they all, one by one, in order put off their coronets, singly ascended the throne again, and

stretching forth their hands, touched the crown on his majesty's head, as promising, by that ceremony, to be ever ready to support it with all their power; and then each of them kissed the king's cheek.

The sacrament was afterwards administered to his majesty, and an anthem sung, at the end of which the drums beat, and the trumpets rang, and the people shouted, Long live the king. The archbishop then went to the altar, and prayed for some time—and the ceremony of crowning ended.

Then came the chivalrous banquet in the hall. The king was now habited in robes of purple velvet, furred with ermine:—the crown of state was on his head; in his right hand was the sceptre, and in his left the orb with the cross. He walked under the canopy, which was supported as before. When the gorgeous procession had at length arrived within the hall, the passage from the kitchen to the lower end was opened; and the gentlemen bearing the golden dishes for the first course were seen, in regular line, ready to proceed to the king's table. At this moment, the doors at the end of the hall were opened, the clarions and trumpets at the same time sounding, and the duke of Wellington, as lord high constable, the marquis of Anglesea, as lord high steward, and lord Howard of Effingham, as deputy earl marshal, entered upon the floor, on horseback. The marquis of Anglesea's horse was a beautiful cream-coloured Arabian; lord Howard's was a dun; and the duke of Wellington's a white steed. After a short pause, they rode gracefully up to the royal table, followed by the gentlemen with the first course. When the dishes were placed upon the board, the bearers first retired, with their faces towards the king; and then the noble horsemen retreated, by backing their steeds down the hall, and out at the archway.

Before the dishes were uncovered, the lord great chamberlain presented the basin and ewer, to bathe his majesty's hands; and the lord of the manor of Heydon attended with a rich towel. The dishes were then uncovered; and his majesty was helped, by the carvers, to some soup

At the end of this course, the gates of the hall were again thrown open, and a flourish of trumpets announced to the eager assembly, that the champion was about to enter. He advanced under the gateway, on a fine pie-bald charger, and clad in complete steel. The plumes on his head were of three colours, and extremely magnificent; and he bore in his hand the loose steel gauntlet, ready for the challenge. The duke of Wellington was on his right hand; the marquis of Anglesea on his left. The herald then read the challenge:—

"If any person, of what degree soever, high or low, shall deny or gainsay our sovereign lord King George the Fourth, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, son and next heir to our sovereign lord king George the Third, the last king deceased, to be right heir to the imperial crown of this United Kingdom, or that he ought not to enjoy the same, here is his champion, who saith that he lieth, and is a false traitor; being ready, in person, to combat with him, and in this quarrel will adventure his life against him, on what day soever he shall be appointed."

At the conclusion of this challenge, the champion hurled down his gauntlet, which fell with a solemn clash upon the floor. He then placed his wrist against his steeled side, as if to show how indifferent he was to the consequence of his challenge. The herald, in a few seconds, took up the glove, delivered it to the squire, who kissed it, and handed

it to the champion. In the middle of the hall, the same ceremony was performed; and also a third time at the foot of the royal platform. The king then drank his health, and sent him the cup; and he taking it, drank to the king, but his voice was drowned by the tumultuous shouts.

On the champion retiring, the second course was brought in. Certain services were then performed, which generally ended in a peer or some other fortunate personage being presented with a gold cup. The most interesting was the present of two falcons to his majesty from the duke of Athol, as an acknowledgment of fealty, and the tenure by which he held his estates under the crown.

The king's health was about this time drunk, with great acclamations, and the national hymn of "God save the King" was sung by the choir. The king, standing up, drank to his subjects; notice of which honour was communicated by the duke of Norfolk; and shortly afterwards—*Non Nobis Domine* having been sung—in which the king took a part—his majesty retired, amidst the joyous clamours of his people.

The exclusion from Westminster Hall, was the last of the many mortifications which it was the lot of the unfortunate daughter of the house of Brunswick to endure. After a week's suffering from an internal inflammatory disorder, this ill-fated and ill-treated, and we fear we must add, this ill-conducted princess, breathed her last, on the night of the 7th of August, in the fifty-fourth year of her age.

In her will, she had directed that her body, three days after her death, should be carried, without being opened, to Brunswick, for interment; and that the inscription on the coffin should be, "Here lies Caroline of Brunswick, the injured queen of England."

On the morning of the fourteenth, at eight o'clock, the funeral procession moved from Brandenburg house. The queen's executors had made a protest against the moving of the body, and the measures which had been pursued respecting it, by order of the government, particularly its being accompanied by a military guard. There was in consequence exhibited a dreadful scene of opposition and tumult, in which many of the military were hurt, and two of the populace were killed.

During these proceedings, the king was in Ireland. He had set out the day before the illness of the queen commenced; but the news of her death reached him before he had left the English shores. He landed at Howth on the 12th of August; and, in consequence of his late consort's decease, he wished to have gone on shore in private. But privacy was impossible, and the moment his approach was known, all Dublin poured forth its population, to greet him. The enthusiasm rose to extravagance, and the king was all affability, in return; condescending to shake hands cordially with the very lowest of the populace. He did not make his public entry into Dublin until the 17th of August. During the whole period of his stay in Ireland, he met with nothing but the most ardent demonstrations of loyalty. He returned to London on the 16th of September, and on the 24th left it again, to visit Hanover.

THIRD PART.

Mr. Peel appointed Secretary of State for the home Department.—Marquis of Wellesley, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.—Visit of the King to Scotland.—Death of the Marquis of Londonderry.—Mr. Canning appointed Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs.—Disturbances in Ireland.

THE clamours of the country gentlemen, before the next meeting of parliament, had probably a great influence in determining the ministers to form a union with the Grenville party. The marquis of Buckingham was elevated to the dignity of a duke; Mr. C. Wynne was placed at the head of the board of control; and another of the family, Mr. A. Wynne, was named envoy to the Swiss Cantons, with appointments to the amount of about four thousand pounds a year. This union excited, as might have been expected, loud clamours amongst the whigs.

Another change which occurred in the ministry, in the month of January, was the retirement, from active employment, of lord Sidmouth; who, retaining his seat in the cabinet, was succeeded in his office of secretary of state for the home department, by Mr. Peel, eldest son of Sir Robert Peel, of Lancashire; a gentleman, who, from a very slender capital, had amassed an immense estate by the manufacture of cotton fabrics.

The marquis of Londonderry (lately entitled, before the death of his father, viscount Castlereagh) was in great want of official aid in the house of commons: there, he was the sole Atlas of the state: on his shoulders almost exclusively lay the burthen of giving explanations, answering questions, and repelling attacks in relation to the affairs of the home department, as well as to those of the foreign. The retreat of lord Sidmouth made room for the promotion of Mr. Peel, who proved an effective co-operator with lord Londonderry in the house of commons, and relieved the latter from some part of that mass of multifarious business by which his mind had been distracted.

The change which occurred in the administration of Ireland, was of much greater importance. The appointment of the marquis Wellesley to be lord-lieutenant of that part of the empire, was regarded as the commencement of a new system of government; and this presage was strengthened by the removal of Mr. Saurin, the able and vehement friend of protestant ascendancy, from the high situation of attorney-general, in order to make way for the advancement of his rival, Mr. Plunket, one of the ablest advocates of catholic emancipation. Under these new auspices, it was supposed that every ebullition of that spirit which exulted in the depression of the catholics, would be discouraged; their affections would be conciliated; and, from the vigorous measures which the energy of Lord Wellesley's character would lead him to adopt, joined with his freedom from anti-catholic prejudices, his administration, it was hoped, would prove an epoch, from which Ireland might date an era of internal tranquillity and union. But no such question as catholic emancipation then existed in the cabinet: the catholics were to continue excluded from all that was then closed against them. Lord Wellesley did certainly discourage orange toasts and ceremonies: but what did that avail? While the laws of the land conferred political as-

cendancy upon the protestants, it could not be otherwise than fruitless to attempt to restrain them from the joyous and ostentatious celebration of their triumph.

If the presence of the marquis Wellesley was ineffectual to allay the heart-burnings which raged between the upper classes in Ireland, it was equally inadequate to suppress the outrages which made a great part of the island a tempestuous scene of violence, iniquity, and disorder. Atrocious deeds, similar to those which disgraced the conclusion of the preceding year, continued to be daily and nightly perpetrated. Nearly the whole of Munster was in a state, into which it is difficult to conceive how a civilized country could fall, that was not afflicted by foreign invasion, or had not been the seat of a protracted civil war.

Not many months after his assuming the reins of government in Ireland, Lord Wellesley had a very decisive proof of the animosity which his line of conduct had excited in the breasts of the orange party. On the evening of the 14th of December, he attended the theatre; when his visit was hailed with every expression of dislike. As the play proceeded, the disturbance became more outrageous, until at length a bottle, and a fragment of a watchman's rattle, were thrown from one of the galleries, in the direction of the vice-regal box.

Indeed, lord Wellesley stood in entirely a false position. Friendly himself to the catholic claims, he was to administer the government of Ireland, according to anti-catholic laws, and under an anti-catholic cabinet. There was, therefore, a constant opposition between his own feelings and principles, and the spirit of the system on which it was his duty to act.*

The year 1821 will be for ever memorable, by the death of Napoleon Buonaparte; whose spirit passed from its mortal tenement, to the Great Judge of all, on the fifth of May.†

On the 10th of August, the king embarked at Greenwich, for Scotland, on board the Royal George Yacht. On the 15th, he landed at Leith, and, accompanied by the different officers of the city, and an immense concourse of people, proceeded to the ancient palace of Holyrood-house, where the lord-provost, magistrates, and town-council of Edinburgh, presented a congratulatory address. On the 17th, his majesty held a court; and on the 20th a levee; at which, the addresses of the different public bodies in Scotland, were received. On the 22d, accompanied by a grand procession, he proceeded from Holyrood-house to the castle, escorted by the highland clans, under their respective leaders, in full costume. On the following day, he reviewed the troops on Porto-Bello sands, amidst an immense assemblage of his Scottish subjects. He afterwards was present at a ball, given by the peers; dined with the corporation; attended the High Church; and thence proceeded to Dalkeith. On the 27th, he embarked at Queensferry, near the earl of Hopetown's, and sailed for the Thames, where the royal squadron arrived on the 30th. His majesty landed at Greenwich, and immediately proceeded to Carlton-House.

The gratification derived by his majesty from this excursion to his northern dominions, was allayed by his receiving, on his arrival at Leith,

* The marquis Wellesley, about this time, was joined in matrimony with Mrs. Patterson, an American lady, a daughter of the late Mr. Caton and grand daughter of the venerable Charles Carroll, of Carrollton.

† For the particulars of his imprisonment at St. Helena, see the Life of Napoleon, by the author of this work

intelligence of the tragical death of the marquis of Londonderry. This event occurred at his lordship's residence, at Foot's Craig, on Monday, the 12th of August, from a wound inflicted by himself, in his neck, with a pen-knife, while labouring under insanity, caused, it was supposed, by the pressure of severe ministerial duties. He was buried in Westminster Abbey, between the graves of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox.

To find a successor to the marquis of Londonderry's situation in the ministry, was no easy task. Mr. Canning was universally admitted to be the individual best qualified for the vacant post; and, at length, lord Amherst having been appointed, in his stead, governor-general of India—to fill which highly honourable station, Mr. Canning had been, for some time, making preparations—this distinguished orator was, in September, appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs.

1824. By an act of parliament, passed in this year, was reversed the attainder of lord Stafford, who was executed in the reign of Charles II.; and four other acts were passed, to restore John Francis Erskine to the honours of earl of Mar; John Gordon, to the honours of earl of Kenmure; James Drummond, to the honours of earl of Perth, and lord Strathallan; and William Nairn, to the honours of lord Nairne; their ancestors having been attainted for their adherence to the unfortunate royal family of Stuart.

1825. Except as regarded the agitation amongst the catholic population of Ireland, chiefly by the instigation of Mr. O'Connell, Mr. Lawless, and Mr. Shiel, the political horizon of the British islands, during the greater part of the year 1825 was unclouded. Nearly all property in England had risen greatly in pecuniary value, and every branch of internal industry was thriving. Agricultural distress had disappeared; the persons engaged in the cotton and woollen manufactures, were in full employment; the various departments of the iron trade were flourishing; in every district, new buildings were in the progress of erection; and money was so abundant, that men of enterprise, though without capital, found no difficulty in obtaining funds for any plausible undertaking.

The ministers determined to appoint charges des affaires to the states of Colombia, Mexico and Buenos Ayres; and entered into treaties of commerce with those states, respectively, on the basis of the recognition of their independence of Spain; from which, nearly the whole continental dominions of that monarchy had revolted on the invasion of the peninsula, by Napoleon, in the year 1810.

1826. But the too great abundance of money, which had stimulated industry in the beginning of the preceding year, proved, before its termination, most disastrous. Enterprise was pushed to an extreme degree of speculation, and what may fairly be termed mercantile gambling, particularly in the creation of innumerable joint-stock companies in London. The consequences were felt most calamitously throughout the present year. Private credit was almost destroyed; the failure of private bankers, both in the metropolis and in the country, continued to increase; and the universal distrust which existed, by limiting the facilities of obtaining discounts and advances, deprived commerce of its natural aid, and increased the difficulties of the trader

FOURTH PART.

Death of the Duke of York.—The Duke of Wellington appointed Commander-in-chief.—Death of the Earl of Liverpool.—Mr. Canning becomes Prime Minister.—His death.—Is succeeded by Lord Goderich.—He resigns.—The Duke of Wellington placed at the head of the Administration.—The Marquis of Anglesea is succeeded in the government of Ireland, by the Duke of Northumberland.

1827. THE earliest public event of this year, was the death of the duke of York, the nearest heir presumptive of the crown. He died on the 5th of January, being then in his sixty-fourth year. He had held the office of commander-in-chief of all the forces for more than thirty-two years; in the administration of which he did not merely improve,—he literally created, an army. By unceasing diligence, he gave to the common soldier comfort and respectability; the army ceased to be considered as a sort of pest-house for the reception of moral lepers; and discipline and regularity were exacted with unceasing strictness; the officers were advanced by a gradual and well-ordered system of promotion, by which merit was not, as formerly, pushed aside, to make way for mere rank and wealth.

The duke of Wellington, already master-general of the ordnance, was now called to the head of the army, which had so often followed him to victory in the field.

By the death of the duke of York, his next brother, the duke of Clarence, became the nearest presumptive heir of the crown.

In the middle of February, the earl of Liverpool was suddenly attacked by a paralytic stroke. The immediate and more violent effects of the disease yielded to the power of medicine; but its permanent consequences were of such a nature, as to remove the minister for ever from public life.* The office of premier was thus unoccupied; the government was left without a head; and unfortunately the usual difficulties of appointing a successor were greatly increased by the very nature of that cabinet over which the earl of Liverpool had presided. For some years, it had not been characterized by perfect unanimity of sentiment, with regard to more than one of the most important public questions. Himself immoveable in his hostility to the demands of the catholics, it was, notwithstanding, he who had introduced into the office which he now held, Mr. Canning, who, since 1812, had thought it prudent to exert his eloquence in their support. The catholic question, above all, was now a stone of offence to many of the members; and it was upon this rock that the cabinet went to pieces. The lord chancellor, the duke of Wellington, and Mr. Peel, formed the strength of the party opposed to emancipation. Mr. Canning, though his sincerity in the cause had often been denied or questioned, was placed, by his official situation, at the head of its friends.. The king at length finally determined, that the new ministry should be, like its predecessor, divided in its opinion upon

* He died on the 4th of December, having been prime minister about twelve years

the catholic question; but that Mr. Canning, the leader of the catholic party, who refused to serve under an anti-catholic premier, should be at its head. The consequence was, that, having formally received, on the 10th of April, the king's instructions to form a ministry, he found himself, in less than forty-eight hours, deprived of the assistance of no fewer than six of the leading members of the former cabinet,—Mr. Peel, lord Eldon, earl of Westmoreland, lord Bathurst, duke of Wellington, and lord Melville;—and those resignations were speedily followed by others.*

The session of parliament, during which those important changes had occurred, was one in which very little business had been done, but the events of which had excited more hopes and fears, and had given it a character of more intense interest than would have been called forth by the usual routine of political discussion. It had borne, in a great degree, a personal character. It was "man to man, the soldier and his sword." It was destined to be speedily followed by an event, which stretched that interest to its utmost degree, and taught one of the most impressive lessons, that the history of politics presents, of the vanity and uncertainty of ambition. The health of Mr. Canning had been in a very delicate state, even at the commencement of the session; and the mental anxiety which followed could not be otherwise than injurious to its restoration. His care-worn appearance betrayed that the mind was ill at ease within; mind and body panted equally for repose. Soon after the rising of parliament, he was visited by an illness, which seemed, however, to yield to medical treatment, and he went down to the duke of Devonshire's seat at Chiswick, to seek tranquillity, and enjoy a purer air. The disease returned; inflammation had commenced; it proceeded with a violence and rapidity which set art at defiance; and Mr. Canning expired at Chiswick (the same house in which Mr. Fox had breathed his last,) on the 8th of August, in the 57th year of his age, after having been prime minister only four months.

* When the parliament re-assembled on the 1st of May, the new ministry was as follows:—

THE CABINET.

Lord Chancellor	Lord Lyndhurst (late Sir John Copley)
Lord President	Earl of Harrowby
Lord Privy Seal	Duke of Portland.
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster	Lord Bexley.
Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs	Viscount Dudley.
Secretary of State for the Colonies	Viscount Goderich (late Mr. Robinson.)
Sec. of State for the Home Department	W. S. Bourne.
President of the Board of Trade	W. Huskisson.
President of the Board of Control	C. W. Wynne.
Secretary at War	Viscount Palmerston.
First Lord of the Treasury, and Chancellor of the Exchequer	George Canning.

NOT IN THE CABINET.

Lord High Admiral	Duke of Clarence.
Master-General of the Ordnance	Marquis of Anglesea.
Lord Chamberlain of the Household	Duke of Devonshire.
Master of the Horse	Duke of Leeds.
Chief Sec. to the Lord Lieu. of Ireland.	W. Lamb.

LAW APPOINTMENTS.

Master of the Rolls	Sir John Leach.
Vice Chancellor	Sir A. Hart.
Attorney-General	Sir James Scarlett
Solicitor-General	Sir N. Tindall

It was not unnatural to expect, that, on the removal of Mr. Canning, whose influence alone seemed to have brought, and to have kept together, the heterogeneous materials, of which the cabinet was composed, its discordant elements would again fly asunder. Very few changes, however, occurred; and their effect was to bring back into office a portion of Mr. Canning's former friends. The duke of Wellington almost immediately resumed the command of the army, but without any seat in the cabinet. Lord Goderich took the reins of government, as first lord of the treasury; Mr. Huskisson succeeded him as colonial secretary; and Mr. Herries was appointed chancellor of the exchequer.

On the appointment of lord Goderich to the premiership, lord William Bentinck was named to succeed lord Amherst, as governor-general of India; and lord Amherst, in the mean time, was making "a progress" up the Ganges, receiving the visits of the neighbouring princes, amidst the amusements and luxuries of oriental magnificence.

1828. This was an era of ministerial changes. Unequal to the task of maintaining concord amongst the members of the new administration, on the 8th of January, lord Goderich made known his difficulties to the king, and ceased to be premier; and thus perished the Canning coalition ministry, after an existence of seven months.

Now abandoned by his ministers, the king sent for the duke of Wellington, and commissioned him to form a new cabinet, with himself at its head. The new government was speedily constructed. In framing it, nearly all the members of the former cabinet were retained, except the whigs, who had joined Mr. Canning in the day of his necessity. Mr. Peel returned to the home department, in the place of the marquis of Lansdown. Mr. Tierney surrendered the mint. Sir James Scarlett resigned the office of attorney-general, which was restored to Sir Charles Wetherell. Lord Melville (son of the celebrated colleague of Mr. Pitt) was placed at the head of the board of control; Mr. Goulburn was made chancellor of the exchequer; and earl Bathurst president of the council. The duke of Wellington was first lord of the treasury, and he immediately resigned the office of commander-in-chief.

Another important change occurred, before the termination of the year, in the government of Ireland. The marquis of Anglesea (who had succeeded lord Wellesley) having, in a letter to one of the Roman Catholic bishops, expressed himself favourable to the system of "agitation," by which the Irish peasantry, induced by their principal orators to assemble and parade in immense multitudes, to the terror of the protestant inhabitants of the southern and middle counties of Ireland, the next wind that blew from England brought the mandate which recalled him from Ireland. He quitted Dublin in the ensuing January, and was succeeded by the duke of Northumberland.

FIFTH PART.

British settlements at the Cape of Good Hope.—War with the Ashantees.—War with the King of Ava.—Capture of Bhurtpore.—Battle of Navarino.—Voyages of Discovery.

THE transactions in the British colonies, situated in Africa and the East Indies, are too important to be passed over unnoticed. The settlements at the Cape of Good Hope were extending towards the interior

and increasing in commercial prosperity: but the quiet of the colony was disturbed by the extreme unpopularity of its governor, lord Charles Somerset.

The British possessions, in another part of Africa, became, in the year 824, the scene of much more important events. A question of sovereignty having arisen between two of the native tribes, the Ashantees and the Fantees, whose territories were situated in the neighbourhood of Cape Coast Castle, the British governor became involved in the dispute, and espoused the side of the latter nation. At first, the enemy showed on the frontier only a few small detachments. One of these was completely beaten by captain Laing, though not without considerable loss on his side. This reverse, and two others, which soon afterwards ensued, seem only to have urged the king to more strenuous preparations. He sacrificed daily nine or ten victims, to propitiate his deities; he called upon all his chiefs and vassals to furnish their quotas of troops; and sir Charles M'Carthy received intelligence, that the whole force of the Ashantee nation was in rapid movement towards Cape Coast. Preparations were immediately made by that officer, to oppose them. On the 21st of January, having under his command, about seven hundred European and native troops, consisting of regulars, militia, and volunteers, aided by a large number of the Wassan and Dinkera nations, he encountered the Ashantees, ten thousand in number, on the banks of the Boosam-pra. The issue was most disastrous to the British commander. The Wassans having left the field early in the day, and the troops of sir Charles M'Carthy being greatly fatigued, and their ammunition entirely consumed, the enemy sent a considerable force round his flanks, to cut off his retreat; in which, from their superior numbers, they completely succeeded. The whole now became one scene of confusion. The enemy were intermixed with the colonial troops. Sir Charles M'Carthy, in the midst of them, received a mortal wound in the breast, from a musket ball. The troops dispersed in different directions. A series of engagements followed, unparalleled in previous warfare with the native race of Africa, as well on account of the numbers brought into the field against the colonial forces, as the obstinacy displayed by the former in renewing the engagement, and the skill with which they endeavoured to outflank their more practised antagonists. The settlers at Cape Coast Castle became justly alarmed. The Ashantees gradually drove the colonial troops before them, until they appeared before the town, with not less than ten thousand men; but colonel Sutherland, upon whom the command had now devolved, having received a small re-inforcement from the vessels then lying in the harbour, at length succeeded in repulsing them; and on the 20th of July, they withdrew.

In 1826, the settlements in that quarter were again threatened by the restlessness of the Ashantees. Colonel Purdon, having assembled a heterogeneous army, consisting of eighty men of the Royal African corps; five hundred militia, British, Dutch, and Danish, belonging to Accra and Cape Coast Castle, and about ten thousand friendly natives, under their respective princes, marched, on the 29th of July, to meet the enemy. On the 7th of August, he engaged them on an extensive plain, at Ashrovcan and, after a severe conflict, defeated them with a loss of five thousand men. The whole of the camp equipage, of great value, fell into the hands of some of the least deserving of the allied forces. Amongst those spoils, were, the golden umbrella of state; the golden stool of state; and

gold-dust, ivory, and other valuable commodities, to a large amount. Adononaqua, king of Aquapim, recovered the head of the late sir Charles M'Carthy, which had been considered by the Ashantees as their greatest charm, or fetish. It was enveloped in two folds of paper, covered with Arabic characters, and also in a silk handkerchief, and lastly, served up in a leopard's skin. The captor refused to give it to the British commander.

The tranquillity of the eastern dominions, was interrupted by hostilities of greater magnitude, than any in which the British had been previously engaged, in that quarter of the world. The king of Ava, reigning over the extensive territory, and numerous nations of the Burmans, compelled the governor-general of India to declare war against him. The English had a dispute with the court of Ava, in 1795, respecting some Burmese robbers, who had taken refuge at Chittagong; and general Erskine was sent, with a military force, from Calcutta, to repel the invasion of the Burmese: but the quarrel was then settled, and the aggressors were surrendered, without any actual use of arms. The aggressions, however, were at length renewed. Elated by its conquests over the petty tribes by which it is surrounded, the Burmese government ventured to violate the British territories; to attack and kill a party of British sepoys; to seize and imprison British subjects; to avow extensive schemes of mischievous aggression; and to make hostile preparations on the colonial frontier.

A considerable armament, both naval and military, partly from Madras, and partly from Calcutta, was in consequence assembled, in the beginning of May, 1824, at Port Cornwallis, under the command of sir Archibald Campbell and commodore Grant. They reached the Rangoon river on the 10th, and, on the following day, attacked Rangoon, the principal seaport of Ava, which they entered by storm, without the loss of a single man. Detachments were sent against several other places in the enemies' dominions. The island of Cheduba soon afterwards surrendered to the British arms; the town of Negrais was taken about the same time; Kemmerdine was subdued, after a sanguinary contest; Tavoy and Mergui, the most valuable possessions of the Burmese on the Tenasserim coast, surrendered to an expedition commanded by colonel Miles; the important town of Martaban was taken by colonel Godwin; and the last mentioned success was followed by the submission of Tenasserim, and of the town and province of Yeali; and thus, the whole of the Burmese coast, from Rangoon to the eastward, was subjected to the British arms.

In the mean time, Maha Bundoola had been nominated to the chief command of the Burmese army. On the morning of the 1st of December, that chief appeared in front of general Campbell's position, at the head of the whole united force of the Burmese empire, amounting to not less than 50,000 men, apparently well armed, with a numerous artillery, and a body of Cassay horse; but, after a series of impetuous attacks upon several of the British commander's posts, particularly at Kemmerdine, Bundoola was driven from all his intrenchments, having lost, in killed and wounded, about five thousand men, and left upon the field two hundred and forty pieces of cannon, and a large quantity of muskets, intrenching tools, and ammunition.

The Chittagong frontier, also, had been the scene of military operations; and, after a long series of conflicts, with various success, the cam

paign terminated, every where, in favour of the British arms, and an end was put to the apprehensions, at one time entertained, of an invasion of Bengal, through Assam.

In the following year, the hostilities against the Burmese, were prosecuted with activity, and in their details successfully, but without producing any general result. On the 2d of April, Donabeu was entered by sir Archibald Campbell; the place having been evacuated the preceding night. During the siege, the enemy made several bold and desperate sorties upon the British line, but they were, on every occasion, quickly repulsed. In one of these sorties, a novel scene was presented, in front of the two armies. Seventeen large elephants, each carrying a complement of armed men, and supported by a column of infantry, were observed moving down towards the right flank of the besiegers. But the body-guard, under captain Sneyd, charged these formidable assailants, and, mixing boldly with the elephants, shot their riders off their backs, and finally drove the whole into the fort. On the 25th of April, sir Archibald Campbell entered Prome, without firing a shot. A series of brilliant operations gave the British divisions, under the command of colonels Richards and M'Dougall, and generals Morrison, Macbean, and Cotton, possession of the towns of Rangpoore, Arracan, and Melloone, and of the islands of Ramree and Sandowey; and in the middle of February, 1826, when sir Archibald Campbell had reached Yandaboo, within four days' march of the capital, a treaty of peace was concluded, and on the 5th of March, the British troops commenced their return to Rangoon.

The king of Ava paid to his triumphant invaders, the sum of twenty-five lacs of rupees; renounced all claims to the principality of Assam and its dependencies, and also upon the contiguous petty states of Cuchar, and Jyntia; and ceded to the British government, the conquered provinces of Arracan, Ramree, Cheduba, and Sandowey; the Arracan mountains being designated as the boundary between the two great powers, on that side. The king of Ava also ceded to the British government, the conquered provinces of Yeh, Tavoy, and Mergui, and Tenasserim, with the islands and dependencies appertaining; fixing the Saluen river as the line of demarcation on that frontier.

While the Burmese war was brought to this triumphant conclusion, fortune had been equally propitious to the arms of Britain on the north-western frontier of her Indian empire; where her interposition was demanded to protect a native prince against a usurper. The rajah of Bhurtpore, Buldeo Singh, had died in terms of strict alliance with the company, by which they were bound to assist each other against all enemies. Apprehensive of the consequences which might follow upon his death, the rajah had declared his son, Bulwunt Singh, his successor, and had obtained for him, from the company, the formal investiture of the Khilaat, or robe of inauguration. From that moment, the young rajah was under the protection of the British government. On the death, however, of Buldeo Singh, his nephew, Doorjan Sal, gained a party in the army, excited a successful rebellion, obtained possession of Bhurtpore itself, and seated himself upon his cousin's throne. Bulwunt Singh demanded the protection of the company; and, in the end of the year 1825, an army, under the command of lord Combermere, marched to re-instate him.

The first and leading object, was the reduction of Bhurtpore itself: a

fortress of immense strength, deemed, by the natives, impregnable, and already celebrated for its successful resistance to British troops, when besieged, in 1805, by lord Lake; who was compelled to abandon the enterprise, after he had lost three thousand men. On the 10th of December, 1825, lord Combermere appeared before it, with an army of more than twenty thousand men. Its mud walls resisted every endeavour to breach them, by means of cannon; but, at length, by the explosion of a mine, on the 18th of January, 1826, one of the bastions was hurled into the air with terrific effect, and immediately afterwards the besiegers made an assault, and became masters of the place, by storm.

The loss of the enemy could not be computed at less than four thousand killed; and, owing to the disposition of the cavalry, hardly a man bearing arms escaped. The fortifications were demolished; the principal bastions were blown up, and it was left to the rains to complete the ruin. The Futty Bourg, or "Bastion of Victory," built, as the Bhurtporeans vaunted, with the bones and blood of British soldiers, who fell in the assault under lord Lake, was laid low; and, amongst its destroyers, were some of the very men, who, twenty years before, "had been permitted," in the boasting language of the natives, "to fly from its eternal walls." —All the other fortresses within the rajah's dominions, immediately surrendered; the inhabitants returned to their abodes; the prince was reinstated in his authority; and, on the 20th February, lord Comber mere commenced his return to Calcutta.

In another part of the world, nearer home, a conflict arose, of a character very different from those which have been just narrated. For a series of years, the Greek subjects of the Ottoman government, had been heroically struggling, with various success, to cast off the unnatural shackles which bound them to their Mahometan masters; and the whole christian world had long sympathized in the cruel fate of the descendants of a people endeared to them by so many associations of classical interest and glory. The heart bled at the recital of so much slaughter and so many woes. Neutrality could no longer retain the sword unsheathed; and the strict principles of international law, which forbid the interference of one nation in the domestic quarrels of another, were at length violated upon the altar of religious feeling and commiseration. On the 6th of July, 1827, a treaty was entered into, at London, by the ambassadors of the three great powers, Great Britain, France, and Russia, having for its basis the stopping of the further effusion of christian blood; and, to effectuate its purpose, a fleet was despatched by the government of each, which, in the autumn of the same year, arrived upon the western coast of Greece. Thus disappointed in his attempt at naval operations, Ibrahim Pacha, the Turkish commander, proceeded to execute his orders to quell the insurrection of the Greeks, on land; and, irritated perhaps by the disappointment, he executed them mercilessly with fire and sword. On the 19th of October, he marched a corps of six thousand men to Calamata, another of three thousand men to Arcadia, and prepared to proceed himself at the head of a third body into the district of Maina. His footsteps were marked by blood and desolation. He issued orders to put all to the sword, who should be found armed; and in the villages of Maina, where some resistance had been shown, these orders were ruthlessly obeyed. Continual clouds of fire and smoke, rising all around the gulf of Coron, bore frightful testimony to the devastation that was going forward. The miserable survivors, who escaped

slavery and the sword, sought concealment in caves amongst the mountains, where women and children were daily perishing of absolute starvation; for, even in the plains, and around the cities, the war had already produced famine. A morsel of boiled grass was almost the only food of these miserable people.

The British admiral, Codrington, who had united the squadrons before Navarino, in the middle of October, determined, if it were possible, to put a stop to these atrocities. He had already, by flags of truce, made many unavailing remonstrances to Ibrahim against his violent proceedings; and had exhausted his means of persuasion and conciliation. He therefore resolved to enter the harbour of Navarino with the combined fleets, in the hope that it might produce a determination leading to the desired object, without the effusion of blood, and without hostilities, but simply by the imposing presence of the squadrons. In the afternoon of the 20th of October, the combined fleets passed the batteries to take up their anchorage, formed in the order of sailing, in two lines; the British and French squadrons forming the weather or starboard line, and the Russian squadron the lee line. The Turkish ships were moored in the form of a crescent; the larger vessels presenting their broadsides towards the centre; the smaller vessels in succession within them, filling up the intervals. The Asia, which carried Admiral Codrington's flag, led in, followed by the Genoa and Albion, and anchored close alongside a ship of the line, bearing the flag of the Capitana Bey, and also another ship of the line, and a large double-banked frigate; each of the three British ships having thus her proper opponent in the front line of the Turkish fleet. The four ships to windward, part of the Turko-Egyptian squadron, were allotted to the squadron of rear-admiral de Rigny; and those to leeward, in the sight of the crescent, were to mark the stations of the whole Russian squadron; the ships of their line closing those of the English line, and being followed up by their own frigates; while proper stations were assigned to the frigates of the English and French squadrons.—At length, the Turks, supposing that a boat despatched from one of the English squadrons, was approaching for the purpose of boarding, fired at her a volley of musketry, by which a lieutenant and several of her crew were killed; and this was quickly followed by a general engagement. As each ship of the enemy became disabled, such of her crew as could escape from her, set her on fire, and the combined fleets had to exercise as much activity in avoiding danger from the frequent explosions, as in continuing the contest. The battle continued with unabated fury, during four hours. At the end of that period, the Turkish and Egyptian fleets had disappeared; the bay of Navarino was covered with their wrecks; only a few of the smaller vessels, or some battered and useless hulks, escaped into the security of the inner harbour. The carnage on board the crowded ships of the enemy, was dreadful. In two of their ships of the line alone, two thirds of their crews were killed or wounded. The severest loss on the side of the allies, was sustained by the British squadron, which had seventy-five men killed, and one hundred and ninety-seven wounded. Of the French, there were killed forty-three, and wounded one hundred and forty-four.

Under any predecessor of the Sultan Mahmoud, the intelligence of such a disaster, inflicted by powers who had their representatives resident at his court as friends and allies, would have endangered the life of every

christian in Constantinople; but the Sultan had made himself master of the mob of his capital; and there was not much reason to apprehend, on the present occasion, those excesses of popular fury which had distinguished the reign of the Janissaries. In their communication with the Reis Effendi, the ambassadors admitted the occurrence of the disaster at Navarino, but added their conviction, that the event, however much it was to be deplored, had been caused entirely through the fault of the Turkish commander. Frequent meetings of the Divan were held, to deliberate upon the policy which should be followed towards the European powers. During their deliberations, a new event occurred, to aggravate their angry feelings. The Greeks had accepted the armistice, as soon as it was offered to them; but, while the combined fleets had been compelling Ibrahim to accede to it by destroying his ships, a body of Greek troops, led by lord Cochrane and colonel Fabvier, landed in the island of Scyros, and compelled the pacha to retire into the fort. The news of this expedition, which the Turks believed to have been undertaken with the aid, or at least with the connivance of the allies, arrived, while the government was in the midst of its deliberations on the affairs of Navarino, and contributed to increase the irritation which was already felt. One party in the Divan, and, at the head of it, the sultan himself, was for immediately declaring war; but the views of the more pacific, or rather the more politic portion of the cabinet, prevailed. It was, at least, of importance to gain time for the purposes of preparation; and the allies might, at the same time, be amused with propositions which would at once assert the honour of the Porte, and delay the appeal to arms, until its forces were ready to act. Accordingly, the Reis Effendi communicated to the British ambassador on the 8th of November, and to the ambassadors of France and Russia on the 9th, the final resolution of the Turkish government, comprehended in three demands:—That the allied courts should desist from all interference in the affairs of Greece;—that the Porte should receive an indemnity for the loss sustained in the destruction of its fleet; and that the sultan should receive satisfaction for the insult which had been offered to him. To these demands, the ambassadors, on the 10th, returned for answer, that the treaty of the 6th of July, forbade the allies to abandon the question of Greece; that the Turkish fleet gave occasion to the battle of Navarino, which destroyed every claim of the Porte to an indemnity; that the Porte had the less reason to expect satisfaction, as it had been informed, in due time, that an event such as that at Navarino might occur, if it did not listen to the counsels of moderation, or if it should be the first to attack.

All hopes of an accommodation seeming thus to be at an end, the ambassadors left Constantinople on the 8th of December. The Russian minister repaired to Odessa; those of Britain and France to the Ionian isles.

PART SIXTH.

The political disabilities under which the Roman Catholics of Great Britain and Ireland, still continued to labour, have been a subject upon which we have frequently commented in this history. The time was now approaching, when those grievances were about to be removed; and it was reserved for the former leaders of the party inimical to their de-

mands, to yield through the pressure of necessity, what had so often been refused on the ground of liberality or favour. To so dangerous a height, had the agitation by the Catholic leaders been carried in the south of Ireland, that it wanted only the signal for insurrection, to rouse the whole mass of the population, professing that religion, in rebellion against the British throne. The alternative of a civil war, if the approaching storm were not averted by legislation, was dreadful to every reflecting statesman; and the ministers of George IV. at length resolved to sacrifice their private opinions, and their character for political consistency and honesty, to the public good. The Catholic Relief Bill, by which the Roman Catholics of Great Britain and Ireland were placed substantially on the same footing as protestants of the established church, with only three exceptions—exclusion from the throne, and from the offices of lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and lord chancellor of that kingdom, and of England—having been introduced into the house of commons by Mr. Peel, passed that house finally on the 30th of March, 1829, by a majority of one hundred and seventy-eight; there being three hundred and twenty in favour of the bill, and one hundred and forty-two against it. In the house of lords, the bill was introduced by the duke of Wellington, where it received the final reading on the 3d of April, and passed by a majority of one hundred and four; two hundred and thirteen peers having voted for it, and one hundred and nine against it; and on the 13th, it received the royal assent. The bill was accompanied by another for the disfranchisement of "forty shilling" freeholders in Ireland; and the raising of the elective franchise, in counties, in that kingdom, to the possessing of a freehold estate of the clear annual value of ten pounds, and thus, thousands of the humbler class of freeholders were stripped of their long exercised privilege of voting at elections for members of the house of commons, in order to gratify the ambition of the few catholic gentlemen of Ireland qualified to sit in that body, whose number at any one time will probably never exceed ten.

In consequence of aspersions thrown by the earl of Winchelsea, upon the motives and conduct of the duke of Wellington in his advocacy of the catholic relief bill, the former nobleman was challenged by the duke: a meeting accordingly took place; when the earl having received the duke's fire, discharged his pistol in the air.

There are in the peerage of the United Kingdom, eighteen Roman Catholics:—eight for England, eight for Ireland, and two for Scotland. Of these, one is a duke, five are earls, four are viscounts, and eight barons.

A series of interesting voyages, towards the North Polar regions, occurred in this reign. The first expedition was intrusted to captain Ross; who sailed from England on the 18th of April, 1818, and returned unsuccessful, after an absence of six months. The second polar expedition was commanded by captain Parry, who sailed in the ensuing year; and, about the same time, lieutenant Franklin was despatched, for the purpose of endeavouring to penetrate the polar regions by land. The last mentioned officer made a second attempt to explore the polar regions, and captain Parry continued to direct several other expeditions, with considerable success; having, in the year 1820, discovered a passage through Lancaster's Sound, into the supposed polar sea.

In the month of May, 1827, the first stone of the London University was laid.—On the 2d of February, 1829, the celebrated edifice, called

York Minster, one of the chief architectural glories of England, was almost totally destroyed by fire. The fire was not accidental. It was discovered to have been caused by a fanatic, of the name of Martin, who was subsequently tried for the offence, at York, and found to be insane.—In the year 1830, the University of Oxford contained 5,269 members; the University of Cambridge, 5,263.—In 1814, the number of steam-boats in Great Britain and Ireland, was only eleven; in 1820, there were seventy-eight; in 1829, three hundred and forty-two. In the year 1825, a steam-boat performed a voyage from London to Calcutta; being the first vessel of the kind that had attempted to reach that distant quarter of the world. In 1826, the number of steam-engines in England was not less than fifteen thousand; one of which, in Cornwall, was of 600 horse-power.

George the Fourth died at Windsor, on the 26th of June, 1830, of ossification of the heart, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and the eleventh of his reign; being succeeded on the throne by his brother, William Henry, duke of Clarence, under the title of William the Fourth.

The following eminent persons died in the reign of George IV.

Benjamin West,	March 10,	1820,	aged 82 years.
Arthur Young,	April 12,	"	— "
Henry Grattan,	June 4,	"	" 73 "
Sir Joseph Banks,	" 19,	"	— "
Earl of Malmsbury,	Nov. 21,	"	" 74 "
Mrs. Piozzi,	May 2,	1821,	" 82 "
John Bonnycastle,	" 15,	"	— "
Mrs. Inchbald,	Aug. 1,	"	" 66 "
John Rennie,	Oct. 4,	"	" 63 "
Sir James Mansfield,	Nov. 23,	"	" 87 "
John Emery,	July 25,	1822,	— "
Marquis of Londonderry,	Aug. 12,	"	" 53 "
Sir Wm. Herschell,	" 25,	"	" 85 "
Mrs. Garrick,	Oct. 16,	"	" 98 "
Charles Hutton,	Jan. 26,	1823,	" 85 "
Dr. Jenner,	" "	"	" 73 "
Mrs. Radcliffe,	Feb. 7,	"	" — "
John Philip Kemble,	March 5,	"	" 67 "
Admiral Earl St. Vincent,	" 13,	"	" 88 "
General Dumourier,	" 14,	"	" 84 "
Joseph Nollekens,	April 23,	"	" 85 "
Sir Henry Raeburn,	July 6,	"	" — "
William Coombe,	July —,	"	" 81 "
Robert Bloomfield,	Aug. 19,	"	" 56 "
Lord Erskine,	Nov. 30,	"	" 75 "
G. Belzoni,	Dec 3,	"	" 40 "
Rev. John Lempriere,	Feb. 1,	1824,	" — "
Major Cartright,	" 23,	"	" 84 "
Lord Byron,	April 19,	"	" 36 "
Mr. Saddler, æronaut,	Sept. 29,	"	" — "
George Chalmers,	May 31,	1825,	" 82 "
Abraham Rees,	June 9,	"	" 81 "

Charles Incledon,	Feb. 11,	1826,	"	— years.
Lindley Murray,	" 23,	"	"	80 "
Bishop Heber,	April 3,	"	"	42 "
Rev. John Milner,	" 19,	"	"	74 "
Carl Von Weber,	June 5,	"	"	39 "
Mrs. Mattocks,	" 25,	"	"	81 "
Marquis of Hastings,	Nov. 29,	"	"	71 "
John Flaxman,	Dec. 7,	"	"	72 "
William Gifford,	" 31,	"	"	70 "
Major A. G. Laing,	———	"	"	32 "
Duke of York,	Jan. 5,	1827,	"	64 "
Charles Dignum,	March 29,	"	"	— "
George Canning,	Aug. 8,	"	"	56 "
Captain Clapperton,	April 13,	1828,	"	40 "
Sir Wm. Congreve,	May 16,	"	"	56 "
Margaret Nicholson,	" 17,	"	"	100 "
Dugald Stewart,	July —,	"	"	75 "
Earl of Liverpool,	Dec. 4,	"	"	— "
John H. Johnson, Com'n,	" 26,	"	"	78 "
William Shield,	Jan. 29,	1829,	"	80 "
Francis Plowden,	March —,	"	"	— "
Sir Humphry Davy,	May 29,	"	"	51 "
Sir David Baird,	Aug. 18,	"	"	— "
Helen Maria Williams,	———	"	"	— "
Sir Thomas Laurens,	Jan. 7,	1830,	"	60 "
Lord Redesdale,	" 16,	"	"	81 "
George Tierney,	" 25,	"	"	68 "

CHAPTER XX.

WILLIAM THE FOURTH.

FIRST PART.

His Private History. 1830—1837.

PRINCE William Henry, Duke of Clarence, ascended the throne of the British Empire, in the 65th year of his age, under the title of William IV.

Having received his elementary education chiefly in association with his two eldest brothers, the Prince of Wales and the Duke of York, on the 15th June, in the year 1779, Prince William, then in his 14th year, entered, as a midshipman, on board the Prince George, of ninety-eight guns, carrying the flag of Rear Admiral Digby, at Spithead; and from that period, with little intermission, continued to fight the battles of his country, until, having regularly passed through every grade in the naval service, and reached the forty-seventh year of his age, on the death of Sir Peter Parker, he succeeded that gallant officer, as admiral of the fleet.

In the month of January, 1780, Admiral Rodney, commander of the fleet in which the young prince then sailed, fell in with a large Spanish fleet off St. Vincent; when, after a severe engagement, the Spanish admiral, Don Juan De Langara, with several ships of the line, was captured. Previously to his departure as a prisoner to England, Don Juan visited Admiral Digby; a circumstance which has furnished an interesting and instructive anecdote. During the conference between the two admirals, the prince retired, and when it was intimated that Don Juan wished to return to his ship, his Royal Highness appeared in the character of a midshipman, and respectfully informed the admiral that the barge was ready. Astonished to see the son of a monarch acting as a warrant officer, the Spaniard could not help exclaiming, "Well, does Great Britain merit the empire of the sea, when the humblest stations in her navy are filled by princes of the blood!"

In everything connected with the situation of a warrant officer, he performed his duty as punctually and cheerfully as his brother midshipmen; towards whom, he also behaved in such a manner as gained their entire affection. By the officers, he was beloved, and by the crew adored; and if he at any time became involved in a quarrel, he conducted himself with so much firmness and spirit, that his opponent might afterwards beware of him.

An offended midshipman, a nephew of Admiral Digby, and son of a gentleman of large estate in Dorsetshire, threw down the gauntlet, which was instantly taken up by the offended prince. This movement was succeeded by several hard-fought rounds, terminating, as was most usual, in a reconciliation.

Having been twice employed in the relief of Gibraltar, and each time with peculiar glory, in the beginning of September, 1781, Admiral Digby arrived at Sandy Hook, and the landing of Prince William at New York, where he passed the ensuing winter, produced a very general sensation. He is yet borne in lively recollection, by many of the elder inhabitants of that city, as a fine manly boy of sixteen, frank, cheerful, and affable; and there are anecdotes still related there, of his frolicksome pranks on ship-board. Amongst these, is the story of a rough, though favourite nautical joke, played off by him upon a sailor-boy, in cutting down his hammock, when asleep. The sturdy urchin resented this rude invasion of his repose; and, not knowing the quality of his invader, a regular set-to ensued, in the dark. In this, it is said, the prince showed great vigour; and he also displayed equal generosity on the following morning, when he made the boy a handsome present of money.

When the prince was enjoying himself on shore, in the city of New York, a daring plan was formed by Colonel Ogden, aided by some adventurous partizans of the revolutionary army, to carry him off, notwithstanding the protection afforded by his numerous friends and guards, which failed, by reason of suspicion having arisen in the mind of the British commander of the garrison.

The Prince George vessel of war was soon afterwards attached to Sir Samuel Hood's fleet, with which she sailed to the West Indies, and acted a distinguished part in the great battle of the 12th April, 1782, when Admiral Rodney closed his glorious professional career, by the defeat and capture of the Count de Grasse.

As an episode in the life of the young British prince, we shall now

introduce an adventure foreign to the business of war. At a masquerade in England, in which the Prince of Wales appeared in the character of a Spanish grandee, accompanied by four of his squires, he is said to have paid particular attention to a nun, who was under the protection of a sailor. The assiduities of the Don were evidently unwelcome to the fair Ursuline; and the gallant tar threatened instantaneous chastisement, if any further provocation were given. The grandee, however, was not to be daunted, and he was ably supported by his attendants, who, boasting of the high and noble descent of their master, declared it to be an act of the greatest condescension in him, to hold any parley with a common sailor. High words arose, and some taunting expressions were used, tending to imply that the fair devotee possessed no real pretensions to the character she had assumed. At length, allusion being made to the nymphs of Portsmouth Point, the choler of the sailor could no longer brook the indignity, and a general battle ensued. The constables were called in, the whole party of disputants were marched off to the watch-house, the Spanish grandee leading the way, in all his gorgeous finery. The culprits were now called upon to declare their real characters. The grandee unmasked, and so did the sailor.—"Ah! William, is it you?" exclaimed the one; and "Ah! George, is it you?" responded the other.—The constable was astonished, at having two princes of the blood before him; the combatants laughed heartily at the adventure, gave something to the guardians of the night, and retired.

In the month of December, 1787, the Prince, as post-captain, entered the Cove of Cork. On a former occasion, previously to his having reached this elevation in the service, this young scion of royalty had visited the same port, when a circumstance occurred, strikingly characteristic of one of the parties, of whom the transaction is related. The prince, having been as usual rather profuse of his pay and paternal gratuity, is said to have applied to a merchant of the quaker profession for a small pecuniary loan, at the same time disclosing the fact of his being a prince of the royal blood; but the wary trader refused the accommodation, saying, "I know thy father, young man, and believe *him* to be an honest man; but as for *thee*, thou art a stranger to me, and thou canst not have my money."

On the 13th July, 1818, Prince William Henry, who for many years had been elevated to the title of Duke of Clarence, espoused the Princess Adelaide, daughter of George Frederic, Duke of Saxe-Meiningen.

SECOND PART.

Dethronement of Charles X. and elevation of Louis Philip to the throne of France.—Disturbances in England.—Earl Grey, Prime Minister.—Agitation in Ireland.—Asiatic Cholera.—Riots in Bristol.—Parliamentary Reform.

1830. FROM the very commencement of his reign, King William continued to acquire additional popularity, and to confirm the attachment and affections of the people. Contrary to the habits of privacy, indulged in by his immediate predecessor, he appeared constantly in public, behaved with the most unaffected condescension, and with an unrestrained affability to all who approached him.

But while England with complaeeney enjoyed the aequisition of her patriot king, everything that was fearful in thought, unwise in eouneil, and violent in action, was exhibited in the capital of the French nation. Revolutionary France, which, for half a century, had been the source of sorrow to eivilized soeiety, and had inflicted wounds upon the surrounding nations of Europe, too deep to have yet been completely healed, once more began to arouse herself to commotion, and by her example to produee amongst her neighbours effects which had been before created by her ambition.

The King of Franee and his ministers, at the head of whom was the Prince de Polignac, for some time obstinately resisted the eloquence and arguments of the lately elected deputies, until at length the contest was brought to a crisis, by an explicit statement on the part of the ministry, "that the will of the throne should be the law; that the moment had arrived for having reeourse to measures that were beyond the limits of legal order." This unconstitutional declaration was followed immediately by three memorable ordinanees:—the first suspended the liberty of the press; the second dissolved the new chamber of deputies; and by the third the law of elections was annulled. The promulgation of these despotic mandates, was succeeded by the thunder of artillery at Vincennes, preparing for the tyrannous work of destruction. The portentous sounds served only to awaken the enemies of the throne, and became the signal to arouse an indignant people to an assertion of their rights. Paris was soon declared in a state of siege. The duke of Ragusa direeted the movements of the king's troops, and the forees of the people were led on to victory by La Fayette; but it was not until after three days' slaughter, on the 27th, 28th, and 29th of July—in the very streets of the capital, and the fall of two thousand of her eitizens, that Paris saw tranquillity restored, and the public offices again opened for the transaction of business.

On the 31st, Charles X. was deposed by proclamation, and permitted to go into voluntary exile; and his too faithful ministers, whose misfortunes were attributable to their attachment to the most bigoted of kings, were arrested, tried, and sentenced to imprisonment for life; while the royal exile, having obtained a passport from the provisional government, reached the sea-coast in safety, and thence embarked for the shores of Britain; and, after some temporary changes of residenee, he removed to the palace of Holyrood House, in Edinburgh, where he continued to reside, until his departure for the place of his final abode, on the eontinent of Europe.

France was not solitary in an exemplification of anarchy and dissension. Spain was at the same time convulsed in all her members, and the throne of Portugal was filled by a usurper.

The mantle of peaee, however, soon dropped upon the commotions of the Freneh capital. The same people that had shed their dearest blood in the vindieation of liberty, and the expulsion of a despot, a few hours afterwards raised a new monareh to the throne, in the person of Louis Philip, son of Philip Egalité (so celebrated in the first revolutionary movements), under the modified royal title of "King of the Freneh."

Immediately before the involuntary abdication of Charles X., the Freneh nation had achieved a conquest, in the capture and occupation of Algiers.

On the 15th of September, the ceremony took place, of opening the Manchester and Liverpool Rail-way, in the presence of the Duke of Wellington and other eminent individuals; Mr. Huskisson, a distinguished member of parliament, in the act of passing from one car into another, having the misfortune to be killed. This rail-way, about thirty miles in length, was the first road of the kind that had been constructed in any part of the world, for the transportation of merchandize and passengers, by the power of steam; and the experiment has been eminently successful.

The acknowledged hostility of the present administration to parliamentary reform, created serious disturbances and alarm throughout the country; and, on the 15th of November, a vote taken in the house of commons, in relation to the amount to be appropriated for the civil list—being a sum designed chiefly to defray the expenses of the royal establishments—which left the ministers in a minority of twenty-seven, caused a dissolution of the cabinet. Thus terminated, at that period, the political ascendency of the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel; and, in a few days afterwards, a new whig ministry was formed, Earl Grey being the premier, with the office of First Lord of the Treasury; Lord Brougham, Lord Chancellor; Lord Althorp, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Lord Melbourne, Home Secretary; Lord Palmerston, Foreign Secretary; Sir James Graham, First Lord of the Admiralty; Marquis of Landsdowne, President of the Council; Lord Durham, Lord Privy Seal; Marquis of Anglesea, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland; Mr. Stanley, Chief Secretary of Ireland; Mr. Denman, Attorney-General; Mr. Horner, Solicitor-General; Lord Hill, Commander-in-Chief; Lord Plunket, Lord-Chancellor of Ireland.

New schemes of agitation were at this time almost daily suggested by Daniel O'Connell, the promoter of the opposition to the existing legislative union between Great Britain and Ireland; but each plan was still met by a prohibitory proclamation from the head of the Irish government; and the chief agitator, and several of his coadjutors, were arrested and held to bail, in order to stand their trials in the King's Bench, Dublin, for this disturbance of the peace.

In England, an unsettled feeling, chiefly amongst the peasantry, ripened into results most mischievous and destructive. Many counties were kept in continual alarm, by the perpetration of midnight crimes. Houses, cornstacks, barns, and machinery, were burned and destroyed; the militia embodied, and special commissions for delivering the crowded jails were issued. At length, the troubled waters were allayed, and the minister found an hour of rest, to lay before his country a measure of greater importance to its future domestic welfare, than any that had been submitted to parliament for more than a century. The proceedings adopted by Lord Althorp in the house of commons, corresponded with those of Earl Grey, and resulted in that bold and comprehensive measure, by which all close boroughs throughout Great Britain and Ireland were disfranchised; the respresentation of counties and large cities and towns, enlarged; representatives given to important places, before wholly without delegates in parliament; the right of voting extended to certain householders, paying about ten pounds annual rent; and also to persons demanding to have their names placed upon the parish books for contribution to the poor; the places appointed for voting were also greatly increased, and the period of holding the elections curtailed.

1831. Strenuous opposition was, however, made to this most salutary measure; and on the 22d of April, ministers being left in a minority, the king went to the House of Lords, and dissolved the parliament.

This measure, deemed so expedient, in order to test anew the sentiments of the people, was followed by the most violently contested elections ever witnessed in the British isles.

In addition to the calamities of war, the north of Europe was at this time visited by a pestilential scourge, of the most awful description, of a nature hitherto unknown in these regions. While the Russian armies were engaged in the attempt to subjugate Poland, the Asiatic cholera broke out amongst them, and quickly spread, with dreadful effect, into Germany and the neighbouring countries. At length, the contagion made its appearance in Hamburg, passed over to the north of England, nor was the calamity stayed, until it had laid many thousand victims prostrate before its power, not only in Great Britain and Ireland, but also in Canada and the United States.

On the 14th of June, the new parliament assembled. It was the second that had been called by the reigning monarch, and its results were such as the ministers desired; the majority being confessedly in favour of reform. Charles Manners Sutton, afterwards created Lord Canterbury, was unanimously elected speaker; and on the 21st, the king entered the House of Lords, and, in his speech to both houses, dwelt, with emphasis, on the expediency and justice of directing their chief attention to the reform on the representation of the people.

On the 24th, Lord John Russel, who had then obtained a seat in the cabinet, again brought forward, in the house of commons, in the name of the government, a measure of reform, which, in their opinion, was calculated to maintain unimpaired the prerogatives of the crown, and the rights and liberties of the people. The measure was supported by Sir James Mackintosh, Mr. Macauley, and other enlightened patriots; and opposed by Sir Robert Peel, Sir John Malcolm, Sir George Murray, Sir Charles Wetherell, Sir Robert Inglis, and Mr. Goulbourn.

On the 19th of September, Lord John Russel moved the third reading of the bill; two days more were occupied in the debate on the question "that the bill do pass;" and, on the division, there appeared in favour of the measure, 345; opposed, 236; leaving a majority, out of 581 votes, of 109 for the bill.

The fate of this important amelioration in the legislative branch of the government, was very different in the House of Lords. In that aristocratic body, when the vote was taken, out of 357 members, the ministers found themselves in a minority of forty-one.

The rejection of the reform-bill by the Lords, was attended by disturbances of an outrageous character, in different parts of England. At Derby, the mob liberated the prisoners from the town jail. On the same day, the rioters set fire to the ancient castle at Nottingham, because its proprietor, the Duke of Newcastle, had exercised his privilege contrary to their wishes. Colwick Hall, the seat of Mr. Musters, was set on fire, and plundered; and Mr. Somers' factory at Beeston was burned down. Addresses, amounting to one thousand in number, were presented to the king, from all parts of Great Britain and Ireland. The Lord-Mayor and Corporation of London went to St. James's, with an address to the throne, accompanied by an assemblage of nearly sixty thousand persons. The mansions of the Duke of Wellington,

were of Bristol, and Earl of Dudley, were assailed by the mob, and escaped destruction only by the interference of the police. The Marquis of Londonderry was pelted with stones; and the Duke of Cumberland, brother of the king, was dragged from his horse, but rescued by the timely arrival of the constabulary, who conveyed him to a place of safety, at the Horse Guards. Sir Charles Wetherell, Recorder of Bristol, having, by his opposition to the reform-bill, incurred the marked displeasure of the populace, they determined to prevent his opening the court in that city, and commenced a series of outrages, scarcely paralleled by the riots in London, which have attached a celebrity of no enviable character to Lord George Gordon. The windows of the Mansion House were broken to pieces, the building entered, and its contents either plundered or destroyed. Lieutenant-Colonel Brereton, who commanded the fourteenth light dragoons, refused to act; the mob proceeded to Bridewell, liberated the prisoners, burned the building itself, together with the governor's private house; at the same time, a stronger detachment of rioters attacked the new jail, released the prisoners, threw every moveable article into the stream, hoisted a black flag over the gate-way, and shortly afterwards the entire building was completely enveloped in flames; and Gloucester county prison, the Episcopal Palace, the Mansion House, the Custom House, the Excise Office, and more than forty private dwelling-houses and ware-houses, shared, in succession, the same fate. The soldiers, who had been sent out of the city, were now remanded, the magistrates called out the *posse comitatus*, and, in the course of the day, parties of military, horse, foot, and artillery, came in from different places. Of the populace, the total number of killed and wounded was little short of one hundred; two hundred were made prisoners, eighty-one of whom were afterwards brought to trial, and convicted; of which number, four suffered the extremity of the law. A court-martial was convened for the trial of Colonel Brereton; but this unfortunate officer, overpowered by his feelings and the weight of evidence, on the fourth day of the investigation shot himself through the heart.

In the course of the several trials which ensued, it appeared that the Bristol magistrates were highly culpable. The mayor of the city purposely concealed himself when his presence was most wanted; and the aldermen pleaded, in excuse for not accompanying the soldiers, their inability to ride on horseback!

1832. On the 23d of March, after the details of the reform-bill had occupied the attention of the house of commons during the two immediately preceding months, the protracted debate was brought to a conclusion, by a vote, giving ministers a majority of one hundred and sixteen in favour of this most important and salutary measure.

It was not, however, until the ninth day of April, that Earl Grey again proposed to the Upper House the serious consideration of the bill; and, after a protracted debate of many days, the ministers were defeated by a majority of thirty-five votes. A temporary suspension of their functions succeeded, and an abortive attempt to form a new administration, with the Duke of Wellington at its head; when, at length, the premier having resumed the exercise of his arduous duties, and promulgated some threats of adding to the peerage a sufficient number of new members to create a majority in his favour, a violent and unconstitutional expedient, not acquiesced in, it is supposed, by the king

—on the fourth day of June, the principal opposition lords having absented themselves from the House, the number in favour of the bill was one hundred and six; against it, twenty-two; and, on the seventh this signal and truly glorious triumph of liberal principles, over the contracted and selfish policy of the tory or conservative party, was consummated by the royal assent.

THIRD PART.

Assault upon the King.—Death of young Napoleon.—Death of Sir Walter Scott.—Blockade of the Scheldt.—Abolition of Slavery.—Trade with the East Indies extended.—Both Houses of Parliament destroyed by Fire.—Lord Melbourne, Prime Minister.—He is succeeded by Sir Robert Peel.—Lord Melbourne reinstated.—Death of William IV.

THE presence of the King, accompanied by Queen Adelaide, at the races held at Ascot Heath, in the summer of the present year, was attended by a vexatious personal injury to himself. At the termination of the first race, his majesty, who was looking from a window of his stand, was observed to start, and heard to exclaim that he was hit; but, on inquiry, it was found that he had been struck on the forehead by a stone, not by a bullet, thrown by a miscreant, named Collins. The man was instantly seized by Lord Uxbridge, having a much larger missile, which he purposed to discharge, in revenge, as he stated, for the unsatisfactory reply to his petition, addressed to the king. Collins had been a sailor, lost a leg in battle, and had twice been dismissed from Greenwich Hospital, for misconduct. Being brought to trial, he was found guilty of high treason (notwithstanding a plea of insanity set up in his defence), but the king mitigated the capital sentence into imprisonment for life.

At the palace of Schoenbrunn, near Vienna, and at the age of twenty-one years, on the twenty-fourth of July, expired Napoleon, Duke of Reichstadt, ex-king of Rome, only son of Napoleon, once Emperor of the French, and Maria Louisa, daughter of Francis I., Emperor of Austria.

On the 9th day of August, Leopold I., King of the Belgians, and once honoured with the hand and affections of the Princess Charlotte of England, daughter of George IV., led to the hymeneal altar the Princess Louisa, daughter of Louis Philippe, King of the French.

In the ensuing month, on the 21st of September, the greatest genius and the most popular writer of the age, Sir Walter Scott, expired at his seat of Abbotsford, in Scotland; a man, not more admired for the inventive powers of his mind, than beloved and respected for the kindness of his disposition, and the manly simplicity of his character.

Although not actually at war with any European power, William IV. had entered into a treaty with the King of the French, for the adoption of coercive measures against Holland; the object of which was to obtain the evacuation of that country by the Dutch. For its accomplishment, the combined fleets of England and France assembled at Spithead, on the 29th of October, and proceeded thence to the blockade of the Scheldt; an embargo having been laid upon all Dutch vessels in English and French ports. On the 15th of November, a French army entered Belgium, and in a few days fifty-five thousand French troops

were stationed before the citadel of Antwerp; and it was not until the interior of that fortress was laid in ruins, and an indefensible breach made by the besiegers, that the gallant commander, General Chassé, was forced to capitulate to Marshal Gerard; and on the 24th of May, in the following year, a preliminary treaty was signed, by which the Dutch governor was released from imprisonment in France, and the navigation of the Scheldt thrown open.

1833. We now approach an event of a more pleasing character in the history of nations. It was reserved for the patriotic and charitable King William IV. to see the blessings of freedom extended to his enslaved subjects in the western world, and to tell the children of Africa, in the language of an eminent poet of Great Britain, "Free, you were created; free, you shall remain." The ministerial plan for the extinction of colonial slavery, was formally proposed in the house of commons by Mr. Stanley, on the 14th of May. The plan proposed that the slave should be prepared for the enjoyment of entire freedom by an apprenticeship to his master, for a limited period; during which, he was not to be subjected to vexatious enactments, or any disability likely to degrade him in his own estimation; he was to be undisturbed in his religious worship and instruction; not to be exposed to corporal punishment; but to have his evidence received, and his family respected. Twenty millions of pounds were to be granted by parliament, as a compensation to the West India planters. On the 12th of June, the report was agreed to, and a bill ordered to be brought in, conformably with the resolutions; on which, Mr. Stanley (afterwards Lord Stanley) formed his memorable bill for the total abolition of slavery.

Reform still proceeded in the institutions of Great Britain, and the long enjoyed monopoly of the East India trade was now to have an end. The government of the vast continent of British India is still committed to the East India Company; but they no longer retain their commercial character, the trade with China being thrown open to all British merchants, doing business at certain specified ports.

On the 13th of September, the Marquis Wellesley was appointed Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland.

Immediately after the close of the parliamentary session, the young Queen of Portugal arrived at Portsmouth, attended by the Duchess of Braganza, having been conveyed from Havre by a British ship of war. The royal visiters, by special invitation, proceeded to Windsor, where they were entertained with that hospitality for which the king was so peculiarly distinguished; and, after a week passed in partaking of the festivities of Windsor Castle, Donna Maria returned to Portsmouth, where she was honoured by a visit from the Princess Victoria and her mother, the Duchess of Kent; and the next day setting sail for Portugal, arrived at Lisbon on the 22d of September, and ascended the throne of her ancestors.

1834. In the month of August of the present year, an untoward circumstance occurred in the administration of the government, which led to the resignation of Earl Grey and Lord Althorp; the former being, after a short interval, succeeded as prime minister by Lord Melbourne.

On the 16th of October, an event occurred in the metropolis, the destruction of both houses of parliament, by fire, which may with propriety be called a national calamity. Amongst the irreparable losses then sustained, in arts, antiquities, and objects of general interest, were

the fragments in the painted chamber, the original warrant for the execution of Charles I., and the tapestry representing the defeat of the Spanish Armada.

The new ministerial arrangement enjoyed only a brief duration. On the 15th of November, the metropolis was astonished by the intelligence that the king had dissolved the administration. On the return of Sir Robert Peel (son of the first baronet of that name) from Rome, whence he had been summoned by an express, by the advice of the Duke of Wellington, who was entrusted by the king with the formation of a new cabinet, that distinguished statesman was placed at the head of a new administration, and the parliament was dissolved.

1835. The new parliament assembled on the 19th of February; and, on the 8th of April, after an ineffectual struggle on the part of Sir Robert Peel's administration, the reformers having obtained a most decided majority, the premier stated, "that himself and his colleagues, finding it impossible to carry their measures, had tendered their resignation to the throne."

The retirement of Sir Robert Peel gave William IV. the opportunity of appointing the last administration over which he was destined to preside. On the day following the resignation of the conservatives, Lord Lansdown, Lord Melbourne, and others of their supporters, having waited upon his Majesty by command, the king desired Lord Melbourne to form a new administration, upon a lasting basis.

In the speech addressed by the king to parliament, on the 8th of September, the day of prorogation, he congratulated the nation on the treaties he had been able to induce Denmark, Sardinia, and Sweden, to enter into with Great Britain, for the extinction of negro slavery; expressed his approbation of a reform in the municipal corporations of England; and spoke of a happier state of things as existing in Ireland.

1836. On the 4th of November, Charles X., ex-king of France, better known to the English nation as the Count d'Artois, died in exile, at Gorotz, in Illyria, having attained the advanced age of eighty years; a prince, who, though he passed the greater, or perhaps the best portion of his life in exile, never profited sufficiently by his intercourse with strangers, so as to acquire the tact of making himself popular. In the spring of the following year, intelligence arrived of the death of another, but more amiable ex-king, Gustavus Adolphus IV., formerly of Sweden, who had resided for many years in Germany, under the assumed title of Count Gottorp; and on the 27th of March, Mrs. Fitzherbert, whose name is so closely associated with the early biography of George IV., passed from this life, in the eighty-first year of her age.

On the 20th of June, the nation was deprived of the sovereignty of one of the most humane, generous, and liberal of monarchs; William IV. having, on the morning of that day, expired at Windsor Castle, in the seventy-second year of his age, and the seventh of his reign.

The profession to which this monarch was attached early in life, seemed to have imbued his character throughout with its proverbial candour, bluntness, and integrity; and he will be remembered, in future times, by the endearing title of the Sailor King.

Having left no legitimate children, he was succeeded on the throne by his niece, Victoria, daughter and only child of the deceased Duke of Kent, son of George the Third, now in her nineteenth year.

The following eminent persons died in the reign of William IV.

William Hazlett,	Sept. 18,	1830,	aged — years.
Henry Mackenzie,	Jan. 14,	1831,	" 85 "
John Quick,	April 4,	"	" 83 "
John Abernethy,	" 20,	"	" 66 "
Mrs. Siddons,	June 8,	"	" 76 "
William Roscoe,	" 30,	"	" 79 "
R. W. Elliston,	July 7,	"	" 57 "
Lord Norbury,	" 27,	"	" 85 "
Sir Benjamin Hobhouse,	Aug. 14,	"	" — "
Sir Nath. W. Wraxall,	Nov. 7,	"	" 80 "
Joseph S. Munden,	Feb. 6,	1832,	" 73 "
Rev. George Crabb,	" 8,	"	" 77 "
Caleb Colton,	April 28,	"	" — "
Sir James Mackintosh,	May 30,	"	" 69 "
Jeremy Bentham,	June 6,	"	" 85 "
Anna Maria Porter,	" 21,	"	" — "
Sir John Carr,	July 17,	"	" — "
Adam Clarke,	Aug. 26,	"	" 72 "
Sir Everard Home,	" 31,	"	" 76 "
Lord Tenterden,	Nov. 4,	"	" 78 "
Admiral Sir Thomas Foley,	Jan. 3,	1833,	" — "
Charles Dibden, Jun.,	" 12,	"	" — "
General Sir B. Tarleton,	" 25,	"	" 78 "
John O'Keefe,	Feb. 4,	"	" 86 "
Admiral Lord Exmouth,	" 6,	"	" 76 "
Earl Fitzwilliam,	" 8,	"	" 84 "
Rowland Hill,	April 11,	"	" 88 "
Admiral Lord Gambier,	" 19,	"	" 76 "
Edmund Kean,	May 15,	"	" 45 "
William Wilberforce,	July 29,	"	" 73 "
Hannah More,	Sept. 7,	"	" 87 "
Sir John Stevenson,	" 14,	"	" 73 "
Lord Grenville,	Jan. 12,	1834,	" 74 "
Richard Lander,	Feb. 6,	"	" 30 "
John Penn,	June 21,	"	" 75 "
Thomas Telford,	Sept. —	"	" 77 "
Arch'd. Ham. Rowan,	Nov. 6,	"	" 82 "
Colonel Wardle,	" 30,	"	" 71 "
Prince Hoare,	Dec. 22,	"	" 80 "
Charles Lamb,	" 27,	"	" 60 "
Thomas R. Malthus,	" 29,	"	" 68 "
Henry Hunt,	Feb. 15,	1835,	" 61 "
Francis II., Emperor of Austria,	March 3,	"	" 67 "
William H. Ireland,	April 17,	"	" — "
Mrs. Elizabeth Cook, widow of Capt. James Cook,	May 13,	"	" 94 "
Mrs. Felicia D. Hemans,	" 16,	"	" — "
William Cobbett,	June 18,	"	" 73 "
Charles Mathews,	" 28,	"	" 58 "

Baker John Sellon, Sergeant at Law,	Aug. 19,	"	" 73	"
James Hogg,	Nov. 21,	"	" 63	"
Sir John Sinclair,	Jan. 21,	1836,	" 81	"
Lord Stowell,	" 28,	"	" 90	"
Madame Maria Letitia, mother of Napoleon Buonaparte,	Feb. 3,	"	" 85	"
John Gillies, Historian,	" 13,	"	" 89	"
Mrs. Whitlock,	" 27,	"	" 75	"
William Godwin,	April 7,	"	" 81	"
Dr. Barry E. O'Meara,	June 3,	"	" —	"
Dr. Charles Henry,	Aug. 30,	"	" 61	"
General Sir John Hope,	" 31,	"	" 71	"
Madame Malibran,	Sept. 23,	"	" 28	"
George Colman,	Oct. 26,	"	" 74	"
John Bannister,	Nov. 8,	"	" 76	"
Richard Westall,	Dec. 4,	"	" —	"
John de Grenier Fonblanque,	Jan. 4,	1837,	" 77	"
John Faweett,	Mareh 13,	"	" 68	"
Joseph Grimaldi,	May 31,	"	" 57	"

Population of Great Britain, &c., in 1821.

England,	11,261,437
Wales,	717,438
Seotland,	2,093,456
Army, Navy, and Seamen,	319,300
Ireland,	6,846,949
British European Isles,	92,122
Total,	21,330,702
London contained,	1,274,800

National debt, eight hundred and forty-eight millions of pounds, subject to an interest of about three per cent.

Population in 1831.

England,	13,089,338
Wales,	805,236
Seotland,	2,365,807
Ireland,	7,734,365
Army, Navy, &c.,	277,017
Total,	24,271,763
London contained,	1,474,069

National debt, in 1833, seven hundred and fifty-four millions.

THE END.

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